A Framework for the Development of Mobile Learners in Japan

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Currently, a global problem in education and business is the need for integrated university programs which address student academic studies while concomitantly mentoring practical employability skills. This paper illustrates one such program that attempts to meet that goal. The program was designed to provide students with practical tiered tasks that foster personal development, research skills, and employability skills via mentorship and advising. The final outcome was to foster mobile learners. The structure of this curriculum is based upon the theory of communities of practice in addition to the approaches of workshopping and differentiated instruction. Teacher-supported student learning outcomes, linked to assessment measures, guide students through self-development stages towards graduation and through skills development for entry into the workplace. This program is in its 3rd year of implementation. Overall, this integrated curriculum allows teachers to work closely with students, producing mobile learners within society.

現在大学において高等教育と実用的な実務能力のためのスキル習得の両方を同時に指導する統合プログラムの必要性が各国で問題となっている。このプレゼンテーションではその問題に取り組むためのプログラムを明示する。このプログラムは実用的な階層型課題を指導や助言を通して学習者に提供することにより自己開発、調査能力、実務能力の向上をめざすよう作られており、最終的にはmラーニングを促進する。このプログラムは実践共同体の理論を基礎に、ワークショップと個別対応型の指導を加えたものであり、現時点で実践開始から3年経過している。教師による学習指導の結果が成績、卒業までの自己開発、そして職場における実務能力に結びつき、その結果教育現場において指導者と学習者の距離を縮め、mラーニングによる学習者を社会に生み出すことになる。

Two years ago, we identified in our 1st- and 2nd-year university student body a need to focus more on individualized and autonomy-supportive instruction. We considered the necessary skillsets of 1st-year students in terms of learning and study skills, rather than simply English ability. Our university employs a tutorial system, which acts as a career and personal planning course that spans 3 years of instruction. The previous tutorial curriculum was based solely on a single external goal: a 4,000-word graduation thesis. There had been no coordinated format or mentoring structure throughout the 3 years of tutorial instruction. Thus, there was a clear need for pedagogical change and a shift in the direction of the program towards an integrated approach. While the thesis still exists as a graduation requirement, it is now integrated as a component of the greater goal of creating mobile learners. In the past, the external influences on tutorial (i.e., university administration, the career and personal planning office, and the government Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) asked teachers to provide career and personal counseling to students, yet had no curricular goals or student learning outcomes to guide teachers in creating level, content, or contextually relevant material for student development. In addition, instructors were not given culturally relevant or contextually based orientations; thus, teachers were often teaching independently of one another. Since instructors were not trained, there was a great deal of variability in both teacher input and student work output. For example, instructors were teaching research methods in several different ways with minimal collaboration. As a result, there was very little structure that students could rely on to guide them. In contrast, the present structure provides a stable set of program goals, student learning outcomes, and a general overview for instructors to follow (see Appendix A for a single semester course overview sample). Further, while there is stability and structure, teachers are still given the flexibility to cater to their own individual teaching styles and backgrounds.

The new structure includes a synergy of theoretical underpinnings: C*ommunities of Practice* (CoP), *mentoring, workshopping, differentiated instruction* (DI)*, Intervals for Cognitive Processing Variation* (ICPV)*, and Student Learning Outcomes* (SLO). We created communities that support student outcomes with salient assessment tools. Tutorial is designed around an important 3-year reciprocal mentoring relationship between the teacher and the students. Overall, the course is designed to provide students with (a) personal development skills, (b) practical research skills, and (c) workplace or employability skills. It is an interactive outcome-based curriculum wherein students are expected to participate and work at their own pace. Students are also required to complete skill-based tasks for their graduation thesis or project with explicit student learning outcomes.

In this paper, we introduce the individual experiential learning process, which encompasses four specific, yet intertwined, routes of learning for the development of mobile learners. We then introduce a definition and the main tenets of *lifelong learning*. Third, we highlight the need for more diverse skillsets and mobility of learning for Japanese university students. Last, we describe one semester of a 3-year curricular framework currently being implemented in a Japanese university English department.

The Concept of Experiential Learning

The Learning Process

In the discussion of a new type of learner with a diverse skillset, it is first essential to explain the process of learning, which has yet to transpose towards the teaching of ESL. According to Jarvis (1999), learning is the "process of creating and transforming experience into knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, emotions, senses and beliefs" (p. 40), and he conceptualized this process as lifelong. He postulated that learners, through primary and secondary experiences in the social world, continuously develop a *biography* (a collection of past experiences) that learners utilize as a reference for future learning. Jarvis contended that the biography and the experiences contained within it guide learners through new learning opportunities. The lack of a comprehensive biography impacts a learner's confidence as he or she enters new situations. Overall, the more diverse the experiences of an individual, the more mobility they can potentially apply towards future experiences.

Once a learning experience occurs, Jarvis (1999) hypothesized four routes that learners can take, which impact their biography development (p. 39). As can be seen in Table 1 and Figure 1, route 1 demonstrates a person who is "reinforced but relatively unchanged." This is often a result of familiarity of context through set social practices. The outcome of route 2 is memorization, which predominantly consists of ephemeral facts or simple information regurgitation, often encountered on standardized tests. The product of route 3 is "reasoning and reflecting." This is the direct result of a gap between a learner's biography and the current experience. The effect of route 4 is "practice experimentation." This is a hypothesis-testing stage in which both memorized information and reflected-on-contextual knowledge hold different yet equal roles in the learning process. It is up to the individual to learn how and when to make use of each route.

Table 1. Jarvis (1999) Four Routes of Learning

Route	Label	Description	Reference to figure 1
1	Nonlearning	The learner rejects the learning opportunity.	See box 4
2	Nonreflective learning	The learner simply memorizes information.	See box 6
3	Reflective learning	The learner reflects on the experience and learns.	See box 7
4	Learning by doing, reflective or nonreflective	The learner practices what has been learned and has the option of either reflective or non-reflective learning.	See box 5

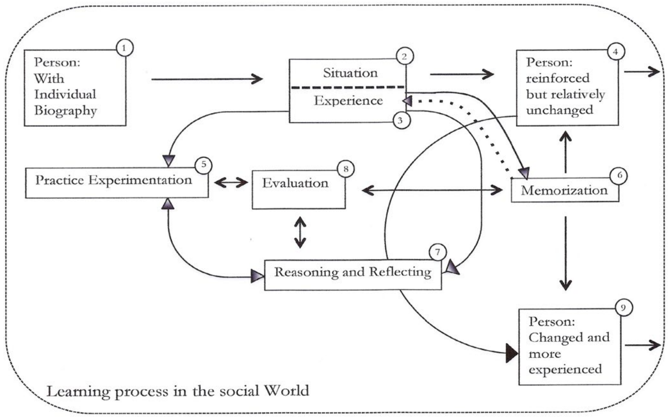

Figure 1. Adapted from Jarvis's (1999, p. 39) Model of the Learning Process (Focus on the Four Routes)

These four routes result in opportunities for learning. The routes develop a set of metacognitive skills and promote a search-out-experiences outlook within learners. Each learning route has a specific purpose and within any experience, a certain threshold of effectiveness. Essentially, learners choose the learning route that matches their needs in a particular learning context. To make choices, awareness or metacognitive knowledge of these four routes is first necessary. The ability to choose from the four routes becomes a foundational skill of lifelong learners. In several countries, including Japan, educational systems hone in on certain routes that offer students opportunities to excel on standardized tests. However, awareness and utilization of only one or two routes does not produce diverse biographies and skillsets.

Disjuncture

According to Jarvis's (1999) learning theory, a person does not learn from experience if the learner relies solely upon past experiences in a "taken-for-granted manner" (p. 38). Put another way, if one does not expose oneself to a gap between one's biography and a new experience (*disjuncture*), true learning cannot occur. Hence, for learning to occur, there must be incongruence between what the learner has already experienced and the new encounter (see Figure 2).

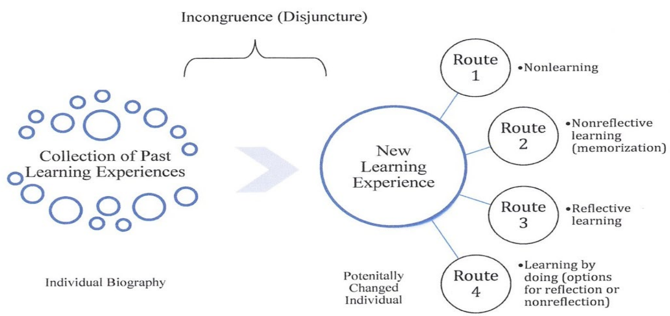

Figure 2. Disjuncture in the Process of Learning (Adapted from Jarvis, 1999, p. 38)

In summary, learning is an experiential process through which each individual develops a collection of learning experiences (a biography). With this biography at each individual's disposal, people can venture into the social world and have the option to enter ever-changing and expanding contexts or CoP (Wenger, 1998). Through these experiences, learners cultivate mobility by experiencing disjuncture between their current biography and the new learning experience, as explained in the Theory of Experiential Learning (Jarvis, 1995; 1999). This was a central consideration as Tutorial was conceptualized. The taken-for-granted manner is a staple of the Japanese senior (*sempai*) and junior (*kohai*) system. As a result, we wanted students to be aware of and be given exposure to all four routes of learning in Tutorial through specific, tiered, and interconnected tasks.

Lifelong Learning and Mobile Learners

It is essential to place the individual learning experience into the larger picture of learning throughout one's lifetime. First, it is necessary to have a working definition of lifelong learning. Longworth (2006) considered this lifelong learning skillset as a social process that includes:

> the development of human potential through a continuously supportive process, which stimulates and empowers individuals to acquire all of the knowledge, values, skills and understanding they will require throughout their lifetimes, and to apply them with confidence, creativity and enjoyment in all roles, circumstances and environments. (p. 62)

According to Longworth's definition, learners who build the ability to effectively and critically gather, synthesize, and respond to deliberate and incidental information with autonomy, flexibility, confidence, and enjoyment towards mobility should be considered lifelong learners. We consider this type of individual as a Mobile Learner (ML). Going one step further, we define MLs as individuals who possess the skillset to (a) confidently and smoothly move from one CoP to another, (b) transfer learning skills between CoPs, (c) continue to gain knowledge and experience of how to use each learning route, and (d) effectively recognize individual threshold levels for each route. Overall, learning is an innate process that requires individual learners to construct meaning (choosing one of the four routes) through the experiential application (disjuncture) of contextual knowledge. Jarvis's theory provides a foundation for Tutorial and developing MLs.

Course Conceptualization and the Implementation Process

We decided that the best way to implement the creation of MLs within Tutorial was to combine several teaching and learning considerations: (a) ongoing process assessment (feedback), (b) CoP, (c) mentoring, (d) workshopping, (e) ICPV, (f) differentiated instruction, and (g) student learning outcomes (see Figure 3, incoming arrows). These concepts are described in subsequent sections. Once they have been discussed, we will explain how they co-create the Tutorial curriculum.

For these theoretical considerations to be successfully integrated, the teacher must set the environment of the CoP. Subsequently, through tiered autonomy-supporting behavior within the skill outcome areas (see Figure 3, outgoing arrows), students take control of their CoP. Thereby, students become increasingly self-sufficient and take steps towards becoming MLs. In general, Japanese students have minimal exposure to this type of learning environment. This requires adroit instructors, integrating student learning opportunities.

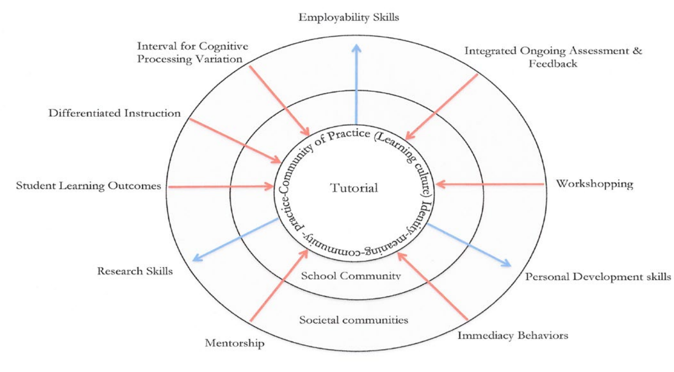

Figure 3. Tutorial Community of Practice with Influences and Skill Outcome Areas

Ongoing Process Assessment (Feedback)

Viewing ongoing process assessment (feedback) as a back-and-forth process between teachers and students was a cornerstone of this course. Based upon 134 meta-analyses of all possible influences on achievement, Hattie (2009) found that "feedback was among the most powerful influences on achievement" (p. 173). This statement can be misleading. Most educators, when they hear the term feedback, consider it as teacher-to-student feedback about assignments or work from classes. However, in our case, it was very important to consider student-to-teacher feedback. What we suggest is for teachers to understand their students more comprehensively through ongoing process assessment. Hattie (2009) identified five factors of student-to-teacher feedback: understanding (a) what the students know, (b) what the students understand, (c) where they make errors, (d) when they have misconceptions, and (e) when they are not engaged. This understanding leads to teaching and learning that can be "synchronized and powerful," and "feedback to teachers helps make learning visible" (p. 173). Therefore, in order to create effective two-way channels for the teacher to both give and receive feedback, Tutorial teachers needed to create a positive learning culture, establishing mentoring relationships. Considering feedback in this way led to effective CoP development in Tutorial.

Communities of Practice

CoP is a social learning theory, predicated upon mutual construction of (a) identity-learning as becoming, (b) meaning-learning as doing, (c) practice-learning as experience, and (d) community-learning as belonging (Wenger, 1998). These constructs form the basis of learning. Wenger, McDermot, and Snyder (2002) defined an individual CoP as a "[group] of people who share a concern, set of problems, or a passion about a topic and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (p. 4). Individuals enter a CoP with their biography and learning skillset. During learning experiences, learners can develop and expand detailed biographies. In this process, students utilize experiences to develop self-confidence, self-determination, and autonomy. Further, they develop relatedness in several social situations. Each individual uses his or her CoP to build discourse knowledge, skills, values, and understanding. As a person's experience within any given CoP expands, he or she moves through stages from being a *legitimate peripheral participant* (novice) to a *full participant* (expert) within that community. In the context of Tutorial, this is relevant and attainable because Tutorial is 3 years long.

Overall, the process of creating an effective CoP in Tutorial consisted of an environment that was safe, nurturing, and active towards self-regulation. Components of the teachers' curricular aims were for students to be (a) proactive and not passive (b) transformational agents for themselves as they learned purposeful goal-setting, and (c) managers of learning for their own development. In order to implement these teacher aims and achieve an effective CoP, a mentoring approach was deemed appropriate. Often, English language majors in Japan are deprived of a full Japanese university experience because foreign instructors tend to be ill-equipped to provide the requisite mentoring, counseling, and advice that is naturally provided by Japanese professors. In order to combat these deficiencies, this curriculum considers mentoring essential for students and teachers. In addition, teachers are given Tutorial orientations at the outset of each academic year and are offered ongoing support throughout.

Mentoring

Varied representations of mentoring exist; however, we chose three that fit our teaching context. First, Halai (2006) defined mentoring as a nurturing relationship based on mutual trust that leads to the development and professional growth of both the mentor and mentee. Second, Reed, Phillips, Parrish, and Shaw (2002) defined mentoring as "a process of coaching a person both personally and professionally" (p. 103). Last, mentoring according to Jacobi (1991) has three major mentoring categories, including (a) personal support, (b) role modeling, and (c) professional development. Combining these three definitions and their composite parts was pragmatic.

In order to effectively mentor students within an effective CoP and to create an emotionally safe, cohesive, nurturing, and participatory environment, we focused on research in the area of *immediacy*. Simonds and Cooper (2011) defined immediacy as "verbal and nonverbal communication behaviors that enhance physical and psychological closeness" (p. 32) and cited examples that include "praising . . . addressing students by name, using personal examples, . . . eye contact, and changes in vocal and facial expressions." Further, they stated that, "immediate teachers are seen as approachable, open, responsive to student needs (as they change) warm and relaxed" (p. 32). These immediacy behaviors have a great impact on student concentration, self-confidence, and sense of fulfillment; therefore, impacting mentoring relationships. Supporting successful mentorship, including immediacy, meant choosing a classroom system that emphasized routines and cyclical learning. Thus, the concept of workshopping was selected for Tutorial instruction.

Workshopping

Bennett (2007) defined workshopping as "a predictable structure, routine, ritual, and system that allows the unpredictable work of deep reading, brilliant writing, mind-changing conversations, inspirational epiphanies, and connections of new to known—that is learning—to happen" (p. 8). Workshopping enables teachers to create an effective learning cycle with three distinct phases in the classroom: mini-lecture, worktime, and debrief (see Figure 4). The workshopping cycle provides teachers opportunities for instructional feedback for planning and student assessment. However, this requires well-organized workshops that create a culture of learning.

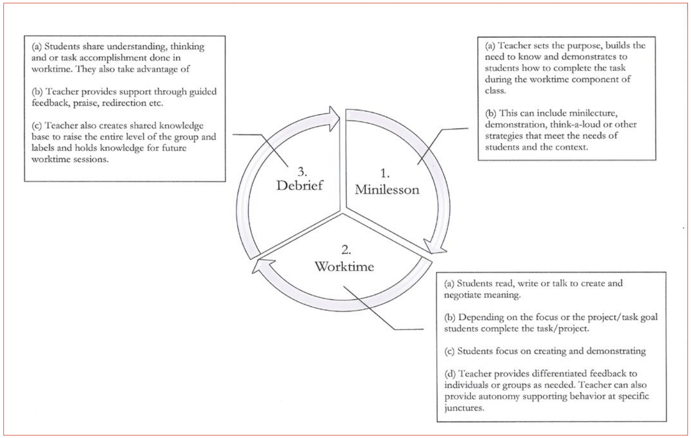

Figure 4. The Workshopping Cycle (Adapted from Bennett, 2007, p. 7)

Within the workshopping cycle, it is essential for teachers to ensure continuity between classroom sessions. This thereby links student self-directed work and classroom objectives while contributing to the learning culture necessary in an effective CoP. If successful, workshopping routines and workshopping cycles foster highly self-regulating reflective learners. Overall, it creates continuity of classes throughout a semester and leads to greater connections in later years. Tutorial made use of this by providing outcomes that were closely connected to course material and supported teachers. (See Appendix B for student tracking rubric.)

Intervals for Cognitive Processing Variation

Human capacity for noticing and detection has been recognized as limited. To deal with this, Agawa and Watson (2012) suggested offering tasks or opportunities that vary how information is processed when dealing with long sessions of reading or listening in the L2. Thereby, L2 input is segmented through explicit, active, and potentially self-paced pauses after long sessions of student concentration (i.e., long readings, long lectures). They termed these pauses Intervals for Cognitive Processing Variation (ICPV). However, it is important to note that ICPV may not happen implicitly. Teachers need to demonstrate how and why ICPV is important. An example of ICPV is visible in the workshopping routine: mini-lecture, worktime, and debrief (see Figure 5). Following a mini-lecture, worktime serves as an example of a student opportunity for ICPV. Students are given time to reconstruct their biographies at their own pace. In other words, introducing ICPV during workshopping is an opportunity to mentor students on how to negotiate meaning between their biography and new experiences (disjuncture, see Figure 2). Finally, every ICPV moment gives students the opportunity to select from Jarvis's (1999) four learning routes. In Tutorial, during workshopping, students were placed into ideal positions for ICPV to occur. In our Tutorial CoP, students are taught how to manage their learning experiences by taking advantage of ICPV moments and applying them to learning experiences inside and outside Tutorial. It is hoped that ICPV becomes a routine for students, recognizing their own personal input threshold levels, and that this knowledge contributes to their personal development as lifelong learners.

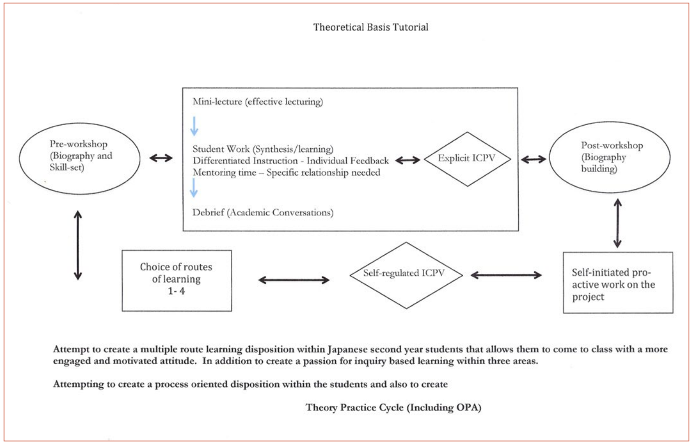

Figure 5. Mentored ICPV Integrated Workshopping Cycle

Differentiated Instruction

We selected Differentiated Instruction (DI) for feedback as a component in the workshopping cycle. Tomlinson (2003) defined DI as the process of teachers proactively planning various opportunities for learning in order to meet students' diverse learning needs. Tomlinson (1999) further described DI as an educator responding to a "learner's needs guided by the general principles of differentiation, such as respectful tasks, flexible grouping and ongoing assessment and adjustment" (p. 15). DI, within Tutorial, was utilized as an appropriate teaching philosophy because it allowed teachers to meet students at their readiness point and allowed students to move at their own pace. Used concomitantly with workshopping and explicit ICPV, DI was highly effective. For example, individual time was allocated as students were reflecting on their own personalities, reasons for coming to university, personal strengths, and other reflective tasks or projects. In addition, the workshop-based concepts afforded the teacher the time to support individual students with personalized feedback. Some students required very little in terms of autonomy support while others students needed much extra encouragement.

Student Learning Outcomes

SLO are statements of what students should be able to do following instruction (see Appendix C). Specifically, outcomes identify learner behaviors following a learning experience. They assert new knowledge, skills, and attitudes that students garner through assigned courses. SLOs commonly contain an active verb describing measurable behaviors that students can demonstrate. Hattie (2009) described these outcomes as producing the "highest affects on students when the learning intentions are articulated, when notions of success included and when these are shared with the students" (p. 167). Outcomes are important as they are linked to classroom assessment.

The SLO were closely linked to content by focusing on the successful completion of tiered tasks. It is the process towards task completion that makes the chosen SLO very important. Explicit outcomes were an important consideration for the Tutorial curriculum because the process of completing the assessments was designed to give students exposure to new experiences. These assessments fostered success within each CoP.

Combining the Concepts: Implementation of Theory

Theoretically integrated learning streams were clearly planned for the 3-year span of Tutorial courses. Table 2 offers a closer look at an outline of one semester's outcome-based assessments (major assignments), which shows how the theoretical considerations relate. While further data and student work analyses are key, within the scope of this paper we present a single semester breakdown of major coordinated components and assessment measures. Specifically, the complex nature of threading the integral components of (a) personal development skills, (b) practical research skills, and (c) workplace or employability skills makes this an integrated curriculum. These concepts are threaded through tiered tasks (see Appendix A) that lead to four strategically placed assessments. To date, the effect of Tutorial has been significant. Over 3 years, Tutorial student pass rates have increased, rising 1.5% since 2010. In addition, job attainment rates for our communication department have also increased 3.4% since our curriculum change. These are positive signs. Tracking student development is a difficult task, as each individual progresses at his or her own pace.

Table 2 displays how four-tiered assessments build upon one another and how the theoretical concepts correspond to one another. First, in assessment 1, students brainstorm and write a self-analysis of their current knowledge, skills, and attitudes. This is written in the form of a mind map (see Appendix D for a student sample). This combines students' reflection skills with their ability to implement metacognitive self-talk. Specifically, students decide what they are willing to share with their mentor and peers. This is not as easy at it may appear and is an important personal development skill. The purpose of the mind map is to learn brainstorming skills in the form of a pragmatic task, designed to foster deeper personal development skills. This task requires the use of all four routes of learning and several components of communication.

Table 2. Coordinated Theory Integration Chart

<table>
<tr><th>4 outcome-based assessments</th><th>Example SLO</th><th>CoP</th><th>Mentoring</th><th>Work-shopping</th><th>Differentiated Instruction</th></tr>
<tr><td>1. Mind map:
Creating an 250 word mind-map about their own knowledge, skills, and attitudes</td><td>Brainstorm ideas related to their personality and skillset</td><td>Active sense of identity by sharing personal details</td><td>Examples & sharing, feedback: Brainstorming</td><td rowspan="4">Mini-lecture,
ICPV,
Debrief with scaffolding</td><td rowspan="4">Work at their own pace, receive tiered individualized feedback</td></tr>
<tr><td>2. Roadmap:
Reflecting on and documenting milestones from life with skills attained through the process of biography development</td><td>Reflect on knowledge, skills, and attitudes as students</td><td>Creating and sharing meaning & identity</td><td>Examples & sharing feedback: Reflection</td></tr>
<tr><td>3. Personal advice essay:
Students search to find their own voice in their writing by brainstorming, outlining, and writing an advice essay on a topic of their choice</td><td>Use their voice and modals for advice</td><td>Peer editing essays using correction code,
share identity, community, practice</td><td>Writing skill examples & feedback: outlines, support, active voice</td></tr>
<tr><td>4. Mission statement:
Students write a mission statement about their future plans</td><td>Plan a short-term mission statement</td><td>Share goals and aspirations: meaning</td><td>Scaffolded examples</td></tr>
</table>

In assessment 2, students reflect on past experiences, which is an integral skill. However, it is also poignant for students to pinpoint where and how they have developed the knowledge, skills, and attitudes they currently possess. Students identify salient milestones within their biographies. Once those milestones have been decided upon (through metacognitive self-talk), students are tasked to document—in the form of a roadmap (either graphically or in essay format)—the important skills they have acquired over their lifespan (see Appendix E for a student sample). Essentially, using Jarvis's (1999) terminology, these milestones are elements of their learning biography. Therefore, assessment 2 is designed specifically to help students understand their own development. Once the first two assessments are completed, students have a more comprehensive understanding of their own capabilities. They should also be cognizant of where their knowledge, skills, and attitudes were initiated and developed. It is very rare that Japanese students are exposed to these kinds of learning experiences in their L1 let alone in their L2. Therefore, it is important that these two assessments are specifically supported in a mentoring environment with autonomy supporting feedback, making this curriculum structure so important.

Assessment 3 is designed to utilize students' newfound understanding of themselves and to use specific language in the form of an advice piece. Japanese students with limited exposure to process writing often experience difficulty in using an active voice in their writing. Therefore, this assessment meets student needs in several ways. The advice essay assessment encourages students to formulate an opinion and follow it with support and examples. This will become increasingly important as students move towards research methods in semester two and on to their graduation thesis. This writing assessment is an appropriate scaffolding of writing and researching skills.

Assessment 4 is a mission statement (see Appendix F for a student sample). The mission statement is a culmination of the first three assessments. It serves as a continuation of student development. This is clear from the Tutorial student learning outcomes (see Appendix C). Combining personal development, research skills, and employability skills is a challenging task for any teacher or student. Therefore, it is critical for the instructor to highlight explicit tiered elements that a student can place in their portfolio and utilize not only for these assessments but for future experiences as well.

This is a highly integrated process. Since the skills emphasized in each assessment may not be readily apparent, especially to the students, we provide sample *skills in focus* (see Figures 6-9). While the figures do not include a comprehensive overview of Tutorial skill development, they do provide a significant overview of the skills emphasized in the three main areas of personal development, research skills, and employability. From a teaching perspective, it is difficult to thread skills in an integrated curriculum, especially when there are multiple external influences. Figure 6 highlights knowledge, skills, and attitude development areas within the strand of personal development.

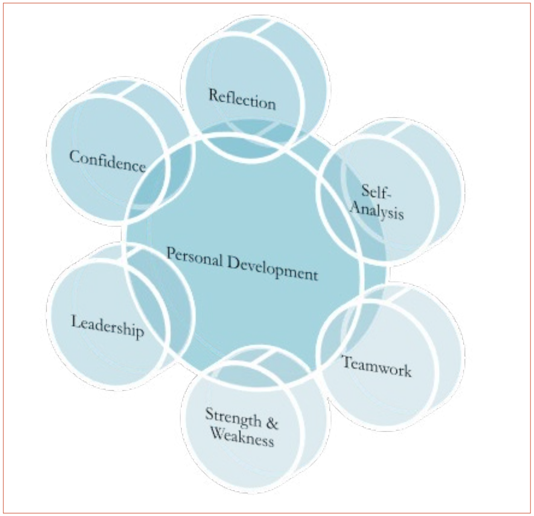

Figure 6. Personal Development: Skills in Focus

Both Figures 7 and 8 highlight some essential components of the writing process within Tutorial. Both figures emphasize writing, knowledge, skills, and attitudes that teachers will explicitly mentor to the students. It is critical to note that we have only included two stages of our 5-stage process of writing.

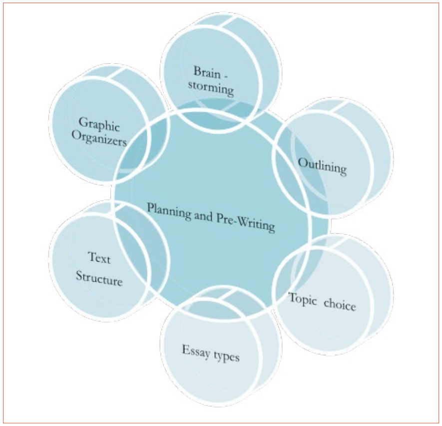

Figure 7. Research Skills: Skills in Focus (Process Writing Stage 1)

Figure 8. Research Skills: Skills in Focus (Process Writing Stage 2)

Figure 9 highlights the knowledge, skills, and attitude development areas within the employability strand. Employability skills extend far beyond our graphic. However, these skills—focused on in first semester of Tutorial—set the foundation for greater employability skill development as each student's university career progresses.

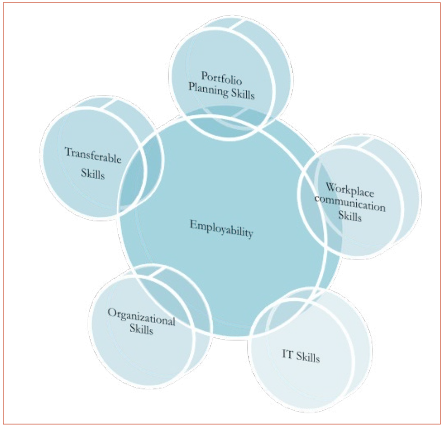

Figure 9. Employability Skills: Skills in Focus

Conclusion

In this paper we have endeavored to outline how course set-up and course design for our institution's Tutorial course can be used as a model for other programs. From a modern global perspective, building personal development, research methodology, and employability skills can produce MLs who are attractive to future employers. MLs are individuals possessing the skillset to (a) confidently and smoothly move from one CoP to another, (b) transfer learning skills between CoPs, (c) continue to gain knowledge and experience of how to use each learning route, and (d) effectively recognize individual threshold levels for different learning levels. Ultimately MLs have the potential to become self-regulating lifelong learners. Although this paper describes only a single semester, we believe that our 3-year Tutorial curriculum provides students with opportunities to expand their biographies by becoming more cognizant of their own learning capabilities. In addition, the assessments have been designed and implemented to foster skill development through task-based learning and student learning outcomes. Further, the tiered assessments are clearly and explicitly marked for content and for completion of task criteria. It is the process of completing each task—combined with effective teacher mentoring and autonomy-supporting feedback—that allows students to build skills that will be necessary for future Tutorial classes. It is hoped that the tasks lay the foundation that students need to be successful as they progress through the 3-year Tutorial program.

In sum, we have highlighted the major theoretical considerations in the Tutorial curriculum planning process. This process of curriculum change has initiated positive outcomes for teachers and students while providing educational accountability for coordinators and administrators. This Tutorial program is now in its 3rd year, and student responses have been positive. However, we recognize that further analysis is necessary.

In a follow-up study, we aim to investigate skillset outcomes, job employment rates, and placements of these graduates. This framework has served to create employable global citizens who demonstrate mobile learning qualities and lifelong learning attitudes.

Bio Data

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Appendix A

Semester Overview Sample

Tutorial I/Semester I Overview SAMPLE 2013

NUCB JAPAN

Dates	No. of teaching days	Assessment: Period Ends	Assessment: Type	Teaching Responsibilities	Teaching Resources (provided or original sources)
5 April – 11 April, 2013 Friday start to the semester (Week 1)	1 Class	11 - April, 2013	Diagnostic	Diagnostic assessment: **Introduction: What is Tutorial? What am I responsible for? Grading.** **Other important information.**	Tutorial Introduction, Expectations for tutorial, Communication forms, Strengths and weaknesses, Personality graphs. Individual activities or materials introducing each teacher's personal style. (i.e., cards, introduction statements etc.)
12 April – 25 April, 2013 (Week 2 – 3)	2 Classes	25 - April, 2013	Portfolio (c) CPB (c) Process Writing / Project (s) End of Module (c)	**Module 1: Who am I? How did I get here? Where do I endeavor to go? What are my strengths and weaknesses?** • **Mind-map** (Introductory assignment) Open to Individual teachers	**Module 1: Self-development and Reflections** Study Skills/Learning materials: • Student Note-book • Journal introduction • Decision-making Materials • Self-development materials • Japanese mind-map materials • SAMPLES of projects.

Appendix B

Student Tracking Rubric Sample

NUCB JAPAN

NUCB JAPAN

Mind Map Assignment

Total marks:	____/20
Organization & Clarity: (Readability & Well Planned)	___/ 5
Effort: (Brainstormed thoroughly)	___/5
Information: (Provided appropriate information)	___/ 10

Assignment Feedback for Students

Positive:

____
____
____
____

Constructive:

____
____
____
____

Appendix C

SLO Grid Sample

Nagoya University of Commerce and Business
Faculty of Communication
Assurance of Learning and Student Learning Outcomes Rubric
Course Title: TUTORIAL (1) (First Year)
Course Description: Tutorial I is the beginning of an important relationship between the teacher and the students for guidance and personal self-development toward graduation and into the workplace. It provides students with practical research, study, and workplace/employability skills in an interactive, participatory environment where students work in teams and share knowledge with each other. Each student is also required to complete all graduation thesis/project assignments, a portfolio folder, and other targeted assignments at the discretion of the instructor.

Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs): ***At the end of this course students will be able to:***	Self-reflection and critical thinking	English Communication Skills I: Reading/Writing	English Communication Skills II: Listening/Speaking	Employability & Employment	Individual Management	Measurable Outcome and Assessment Metric
1. Identify and demonstrate their ability to brainstorm ideas and to self-reflect on their own strengths, weaknesses and potential as a person, student and potential worker in the future.	○	○	○	○	○	1. Values list worksheet 3. Personality Graph assignment 4. Mind-map assignment (250 Words) 5. Employability Map assignment (WP) 6 study skills graph 7. Mission statement Assignment (300 words)
2. Explore and develop their strengths and weaknesses in relation to employment.	○	○	○	○	○	1. Strengths and weaknesses assignment (With Presentation)
Assurance of Learning (AoL) through Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs):	Assessment: 1. personal mind-map 2. Mission Statement assignment	Assessment: 1. small mind map on their graduation essay topic 2 topic sentence for Graduation Essay	Assessment: 1. Presentation about their Personal goals	Assessment: Presentation on either their part-time job or their future job prospects	Assessment: Daily Written entries in their Schedule book completion (65- 70 Entries).	**<u>Culminating Assessment One:</u>** A 50 Piece Portfolio that identifies their progress throughout the semester. **<u>Culminating Assessment two:</u>** 1000 word essay assignment (Self Reflective essay combining components from other smaller assignments)

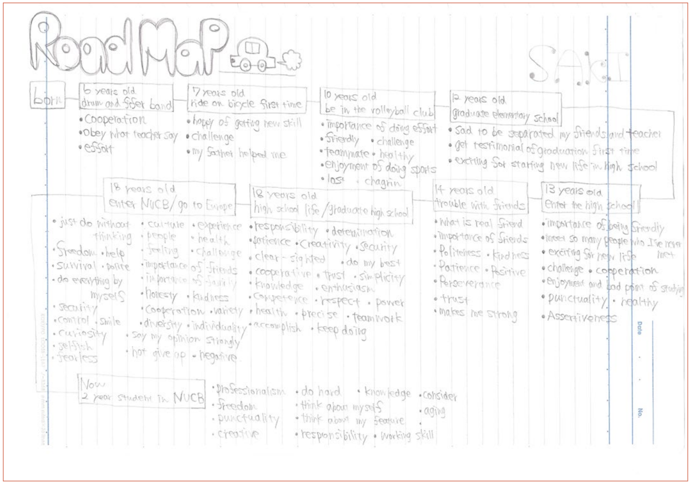
Appendix D

Mind Map Sample

Note. Permission granted by student to reproduce.

Appendix E

Road Map Sample



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Appendix F

Mission Statement Sample

I want to be a cool business person. It means that woman can work hard as well as man does and work better than man does. Thin woman should live by myself. One reason is that it is said that woman doesn't promote like man does so woman should get marry early. I cannot understand that but somebody think that. Why man is so good? Woman also can do. I think that depends on job or situation but I don't think everything is fair.

One more reason why I want to be a cool business person is that I don't want to get marry because I have a lot of things that I want to do even after I get a job. If I get marry and my husband doesn't think same things as me, he may say you shouldn't do that because we are couple. We should be together. I cannot understand that. I want to do everything that I want to do as many as possible I can so I cannot stand the situation that my husband compares me. I don't need children, too because if I have children, that prevent my free-time. I have to take care of my children all the time. Actually children are so cute but in my mission statement children are not included.

I know it is not easy for woman to live by myself because in fact man gets higher salary than woman but I have chance. To be a cool business person I have a lot of things that I have to do. First I have to have many skills. It is like survive skill, working skill, knowledge and common sense. Working hard is not only important ting. I have to do everything by myself so I have to get many skills for my health or alive. I also have to be active, friendly, individuality, assertiveness and healthy. I should say my opinion and I should talk with people who I never met before. I should challenge many things, too. Then I get more skills or I can meet new people. Not only these things but also I should be able to control myself by myself. I'm not student or child so I take care of myself by myself. I should have skills like for my living.

It is easy to write about what I want do or what I have to do but doing that is very difficult. It depends on myself so I will just try! First trying is important.

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Classroom Development of Intercultural Competence

Kevin J. Ottoson
Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Reference Data:

Ottoson, K. J. (2013). Classroom development of intercultural competence. N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

Although there is much attention given to developing intercultural communicative competence, development within a high school classroom of diverse intercultural experiences in Japan is lacking documentation. Based on an 8-month study, this paper offers a glimpse into how intercultural communicative competence (ICC) can be monitored in a classroom of returnee and nonreturnee 1st-year high school students in Japan. In this study, qualitative data, using Byram's (2000) model for self-assessment, suggested an increase in ICC, while the quantitative data using a Perceptual Acuity Scale from the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (Kelley & Meyers, 1995) showed no significant difference. Findings from this study highlight the differences in ICC development among returnees and nonreturnees and the rich data that can be found in reflective learner journals.

異文化間コミュニケーション能力（以下ICC）の開発については、既にたくさんの研究が成されているが、異文化経験に関して多様な学習者が集う高校における学級での考察を目にすることは稀である。本研究は〝帰国子女及び非帰国子女が同じ学級で学ぶ〟という多様性の大きい高校1年生の学級を対象にし、彼らの８ヶ月間を検証した。ICCがいかに培われているかByram’s　(2000)　modelを使い、質的データを分析し、その質が高まっていることが分かった。一方でCross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (Kelley & Meyers, 1995)を使い、量的データを分析したが顕著な違いが見られなかった。そして、帰国子女と非帰国子女ではICCの発達に差があること、また、ICCの発達が学習者のジャーナルからよく見て取れることが分かった。

The stated objective for the high school course, Cross-Cultural Understanding, according to Article 13 of the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology's New Course of Study is "to develop appropriate attitudes toward and basic abilities for engaging in proactive communication with people of diverse cultural backgrounds through the English language, while deepening understanding toward foreign countries and cultures" (MEXT, 2011). Japan's upper secondary classrooms are an increasing collection of learners of diverse cultural backgrounds based on ethnicity, religion, values, socioeconomic status, and intercultural experiences in terms of language, place, period of time, and age. As identified in Byram (2000), these experiences contribute to ones' feelings towards, knowledge about, and actions with another culture. However, little is documented about how to develop intercultural communication competence (ICC) within a classroom of diverse high school learners. Using two sources of data, this study revealed the development of ICC among returnee and nonreturnee learners.

Literature Review

Bennett, Bennett, and Allen (2003) argued that "developing intercultural competence is different from teaching culture in the language classroom as that subject has sometimes been treated in language education literature" (p. 245). Developing ICC goes deeper than merely teaching or learning about another culture. Sato and Cullen (2002) set a goal of teaching culture not in order to build cross-cultural understanding, but rather to facilitate dialogue activities that allow Japanese learners to develop tools to be able to understand all cultures. Therefore, ICC development focuses on mixing approaches that help the learner deal with the apprehension or stress of a specific culture along with approaches that identify topics like ethnocentrism, identity, and adaptation strategies.

Monitoring the development of ICC is complex in nature due in part to definition and assessment. There are a number of definitions and terms to describe the ability to communicate across cultures (see Chen & Starosta, 1996; Cui & van den Berg, 1991; Ting-Toomey, 1999). Byram's (1997) model for measuring ICC consists of five components: attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness or political education. These components, and the corresponding explanations provided in the model, could allow the instructor to assess the learners to exhibit the competence they possess. However, some researchers argue that only learners can assess their own culture learning (Damen, 1987).

Often traditional assessment methods of cross cultural understanding or ICC, conducted by the instructor, can suffer from a lack of validity. According to Paige, Jorstad, Siaya, Klein, and Colby (2003), traditional assessment methods in the form of paper and pencil tests tend to be objective in nature and focus too heavily on definitions and facts. However, assessment of a construct such as ICC needs to be more formative and displayed in development over a period of time. Kramsch (1991) found that many of the foreign language textbooks in the United States focused on testing cultural facts. Drawing from the European Language Portfolio developed by the Council of Europe, Byram (2000) proposed a format for upper secondary or higher learners to engage in self-assessment of intercultural competence, titled, "A Self-Assessment of My Intercultural Experience (p. 11)." This format (Table 1) contains statements to explain and provide examples of the elements of ICC for the five updated categories. With a language portfolio, coursework content over the school term can be more readily examined. A portfolio would serve as tool for both the learner and the instructor to see what areas of ICC the learner exhibits and where improvement is made.

Table 1. Self-Assessment of Intercultural Experience (Byram, 2000)

Categories	Examples
A. Interest in other people's way of life	*I am interested in other people's experience of daily life, particularly those things not usually presented to outsiders through the media.*
B. Ability to change perspective	*I have realised that I can understand other cultures by seeing things from a different point of view and by looking at my culture from their perspective.*
C. Ability to cope with living in a different culture	*I am able to cope with a range of reactions I have to living in a different culture (euphoria, homesickness, physical and mental discomfort, etc.).*

Categories	Examples
D. Knowledge about another country and culture	*I know some important facts about living in the other culture and about the country, state, and people.*
E. Knowledge about intercultural communication	*I know how to resolve misunderstandings which arise from people's lack of awareness of the view point of another culture.*

Research using Byram's (2000) categories for ICC development in the high school classroom setting is lacking. Studies like Elola and Oskoz (2008) show how Byram's guidelines could be used to assess intercultural competence with learners studying abroad in Spain and blogging about their experiences with classmates back in the United States. In another study in the e-learning context, Liaw (1997) used Byram's format to assess development with Taiwanese EFL learners reading articles on their own culture and sharing them with American students. In Japan, Nakano, Fukui, Nuspliger, and Gilbert (2011) used Byram's (1997) five components of ICC to assess the influence that two guest speaker presentations on Singaporean and Nepalese culture had on Japanese university students. Based on pre- and posttest surveys, the guest speaker sessions contributed to development of the ICC components of attitudes and knowledge in the university students.

In the current study, I used Byram's (2000) guidelines to help monitor ICC development because of its strength for use in the classroom context. According to Spencer-Oatey and Franklin (2009), "one key difference between Byram's model and others . . . is that his model is located firmly in the context of teaching and learning languages in schools" (p. 67). Previous studies focused on developing ICC using Byram's model, such as Liaw (1997) and Elola and Ozkoz (2008), have taken place outside of a classroom context in the form of e-learning and study abroad. However, not every classroom study is able to incorporate the use of technology or capitalize on international exchanges. Mindful of these limitations, I explored how the development of intercultural communicative competence could be monitored in a secondary classroom context.

Participants and Method

One class of 20 first-year high school students in the school's Intercultural Division was selected to be in this action research study. The class was evenly split between returnees (R; $n = 10$) and nonreturnees (NR; $n = 10$). The 10 nonreturnees (6 female, 4 male) had lived in Japan their entire lives. The 10 returnees (7 female, 3 male) had all lived for a period of 2 years or longer in countries outside of Japan. Three of these learners were returnees from the United States, an English-speaking environment (REE); seven returnees were from non-English-speaking environments (RNEE) including Belgium, China, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand. Table 2 shows the demographic information of each participant. Pseudonyms were given to participants to protect their privacy.

Table 2. Demographic Data of Participants ($N = 20$)

Name	Gender	International experience	Time
Aya	F	NR	
Ayako	F	NR	
Haru	F	NR	
Hina	F	NR	
Miho	F	NR	
Risa	F	NR	

Name	Gender	International experience	Time
Jun	M	NR	
Masa	M	NR	
Sunau	M	NR	
Taro	M	NR	
Asuka	F	US (REE)	5 years
Sari	F	US (REE)	3 years, 3 months
Kana	F	Belgium (RNEE)	3 years, 4 months
Miki	F	China (RNEE)	4 years
Nahoko	F	Thailand (RNEE)	6 years, 5 months
Nana	F	Indonesia (RNEE)	2 years
Yuka	F	Malaysia (RNEE)	7 years, 3 months
Ken	M	US (REE)	3 years
Manabu	M	China (RNEE)	5 years
Yasu	M	Belgium (RNEE)	3 years

Note: NR = Nonreturnee, REE = Returnee from English-speaking environments, RNEE = Returnee from non-English speaking environment

The returnees and nonreturnees brought with them into the classroom diverse intercultural experiences. Nonreturnees had a variety of intercultural experiences, through international and domestic travel and from living in various regions of Japan. Various intercultural experiences could have been acquired through language study or through interaction in a given place or at a particular age or for a specific time period. All of these contributed to the learners' feelings, knowledge, and actions toward another culture (Byram, 2000). Furthermore, the differing socioeconomic, religious, values, and ethnic backgrounds all contributed to the diverse identities of the participants in this study.

The Cross-Cultural Understanding class met twice a week. The Japanese Teacher of English (JTE) and Assistant English Teacher (AET) facilitated classes using a textbook published by Nan'un-Do, *This is Culture* (Kajiura & Goodmacher, 2005). The course syllabus was based around the following topics: hidden and visible culture, verbal and nonverbal communication, stereotypes, media, and identity. The study period lasted from April to December.

Data Collection

Responses from questionnaires and journals were analyzed to find evidence of the development of ICC.

Perceptual Acuity Scales

At the beginning of the course, learners were given a pre-course questionnaire (see Appendix), which measured perceptual acuity. According to Paige et al. (2003), perceptual acuity is an individual's ability to decipher variations of signals and ways of communication in another culture. Kelley and Meyers (1995) described perceptual acuity as the sensitivity to the feelings of others. Statements like *I try to understand people's thoughts and feelings when I talk to them* and *I can perceive how people are feeling, even if they are different from me* were among the 10 statements to be rated on a 5-point scale. The Perceptual Acuity Scales were seen as helpful in assessing ICC because of the course topics covered and the use of experiential learning activities (e.g., skits and role-play) used in class. At the end of the study in December, learners were given the same pre-course questionnaire as a posttest.

Learner Journal

Learners in this Cross-Cultural Understanding course kept a journal to record their reflections on class activities. At the conclusion of each class, learners were asked to answer the following questions: (a) What did you like and dislike about class? (b) What did you learn in class? (c) What happened in the skit or group work today? The learner journals were collected 3 days later. Their reflections were used to create a class newsletter to be read and discussed in the following week's class.

Results

Perceptual Acuity Scales

Table 3 shows the mean and standard deviation for the scores on the 10 questions from the pretest and posttest of the Perceptual Acuity Scale. The differences were computed by subtracting the pretest score from the posttest score.

Table 3. Summary of Perceptual Acuity (PAC) Scales Results

Partici-pants	Pretest scores (A) *M* (*SD*)	Posttest Scores (B) *M* (*SD*)	Differ-ences (B – A)
All	34.92 (2.72)	35.77 (3.63)	0.85
Returnees	35.38 (1.99)	37.00 (3.02)	1.63
Nonre-turnees	34.20 (3.77)	33.80 (3.96)	–0.40

Results from the Perceptual Acuity Scale questionnaire showed a slight change. Overall, there was a small increase in perceptual acuity among all learners. The results showed a slight increase among returnees and a slight decrease in perceptual acuity among nonreturnees, although the changes were not significant.

Qualitative Data

From the outset, returnees' journal reflections displayed an interest in culture, while nonreturnees' reflections showed a concern about their perceived lack of the English ability necessary to participate in class. An analysis of the learners' journal entries displayed four types of ICC consistent with Byram's (2000) categories: (a) interest in other people's way of life, (b) ability to change perspective, (d) knowledge of another country and culture, and (e) knowledge of intercultural communication. Over time, reflections also showed an increase in focus on cultural content over language form. The quotations are the original students' writing unchanged.

Interest in Other People's Way of Life (A)

Selected journal comments demonstrated the learners' interest in other cultures. These reflections were made after witnessing skits involving a critical incident concerning a misunderstanding, such as when the JTE presented the AET an American flag with a birthday message written on it. Critical incidents are an occurrence that can raise questions about what has just happened (La Brack, 2003).

> It was very interesting. At first I didn't know why Kevin looked very sad. Because it is good for use to write on flag in America. And I thought, "The differences of cultures is very interesting. And I want to know more differences." (Nahoko RNEE)

> It was interesting because Kevin's skit was real. I learned a lot. For example about flags and foreign culture. I

thought, "Foreign country is perfectly different than Japan." Foreign culture is more interesting than before." "I didn't know that if you drop an American flag, you burn it. I thought burning it is worse. Is it burnt only at your house? Or every other American people?"

Q: Is it a culture to not to eat the crust of pizza in the USA? When I was in America many people were not eat in the crust. (Kana RNEE)

I learned another countries' peoples' idea. They are not same thinking, not same habit, and not same common sense. It was interesting for me to learn them. But sometimes the differences are easy to understand, sometimes not. (Haru NR)

In summary, a skit involving a misunderstanding over a cultural object spurred a greater interest in other cultures and a desire to know about more cultural differences.

Ability to Change Perspective (B)

Reflections in the journals showed a greater volume of comments related to a change in perspective following experiential learning activities in class. One experiential activity was a skit involving the AET eating an *onigiri* with a knife and fork, rather than by hand as is the custom in Japan. One learner shared an experience in which she could finally empathize with how someone she previously met didn't know how to eat the same food.

It was very funny. I enjoyed the skit very much! I had same situations. When I lived in Malaysia, I went to the Japanese school. That school has an international exchange programs. It is a program that we invite the Malaysian students to the school and introduce Japanese culture and know each other. When I was I was primary 6 student. We make an *onigiri* to introduce our food culture. We made them and we began to eat. But they didn't eat them. I said to them, "You can eat rice ball now!" They asked, "But how?" I was surprised and I answered and I answered, "With your hand!" They looked very surprised!! I thought, "Why they are surprised?! Now I know why they so surprised. I think it is interesting to know other countries' culture. (Yuka RNEE)

Another learner used the skit as a way to reflect on when his perspective had changed in the past.

I felt weird and strange. Because I have never seen a person who would do that. Also I have never even thought about eating an *onigiri* that way. But sometimes I see people eating it with chopsticks because they don't want to get their hands dirty. Somehow that doesn't seem so weird. At home I usually use spoons forks and knives. I don't really use chopsticks. I'm not sure why. Well, where there's a bowl of rice or miso soup for dinner I use a spoon to eat it but my mom always tells me not to do in public! I didn't get why thought. I didn't think it was weird. But now that I've seen someone eating something weirdly I'll think I get it. Its just not one of the folkways in Japan. (Asuka REE)

In summary, skits highlighting critical incidents either helped change the learners' perspective or they reminded them of a critical incident in the past that changed their perspective.

Knowledge of Another Country and Culture (D)

Learner journal entries revealed knowledge of the learners' culture and the culture of others. Knowledge of diverse ideas within a culture was noticed during a unit on stereotypes. We first examined stereotypes locally within our school and then we discussed stereotypes of people from other regions and countries.

> There were a lot interesting opinions! Sure enough, stereotypes is sometimes not useful because even If there're all Japanese people, each Japanese are different. In my opinion, "So many, men, so many minds." I think some think that there're only the same people in Japan is much crazier. (Miki RNEE)

> Different people think the different ways of seeing things. It kind of relates to Chapter 2's survey. Different ages think it many ways even though they are same as you. Every people think in very different ways . . . . I think people make assumptions about other people because, for example, people assume that Asians are smart. Maybe they have seen many Asians that are smart. So their image of Asian people are smart. But our differences are very different from others. (Sari REE)

Following the initial unit on stereotypes, learners examined how certain cultures are portrayed in diverse forms of media such as commercials, video games, and mascots for sports teams. Journal reflections mentioned knowledge of the diversity of opinions that exist within a culture in regards to portrayals of cultures in media. The following learners tried to explain how Brazilians might feel about their portrayal in the video game we examined.

> I think there will be two types of people. First group of people might feel proud of Blanka because he looks the strongest of all three (characters). Also they might want to be thought that way The other group might feel frustrated because probably most people don't look that way just like I'm not a sumo wrestler. Also because Blanka doesn't look very human so they might feel sad to have such an image since they could feel looked down. This is just my opinion but there are more people in group. (Hina REE)

> Some people good. Because Blanka is super macho. The other don't feel good. Of course, not ALL people are macho. People want people to make a positive and correct assumption. (Kana REE)

Learners were able to demonstrate knowledge of the diversity of feelings towards the positive and negative stereotyping. This knowledge was made evident after examining stereotypes found at the local level. Subsequently, learners could imagine the diversity of opinions that would exist in another culture in reaction to stereotypes that are portrayed in media.

Knowledge About Intercultural Communication (E)

Most of the comments concerning knowledge about intercultural communication came from returnees. However, comments displaying knowledge about intercultural communication were far fewer than those displaying knowledge of another country and culture (category D). After the unit on stereotypes, there was an increase in comments that showed a desire to improve communication and resolve misunderstandings in intercultural communication. Comments, like the ones below, show the ability of learners to express their knowledge of the viewpoint of others by considering how they might feel if Japanese were talked about in the same way as Chinese were in this group activity examining stereotypes.

> I thought there were some wrong assumptions on the papers. About Chinese, some opinions were almost right all right, but some opinions were a little impolite for Chinese.

> Chinese have faults but also have good points. All countries have, too. Japanese are exactly so. If foreigners do the same thing we did, I think it may be the same results with us. We may be a little hurt. We should think whether our information is right or not before we speak up about foreigners. (Miki REE)

> I think people make assumptions about others because it does not check whether having come into ones mind first is true. . . . Therefore, I thought that the mistaken recognition will be produced. In order to prevent it, we thought it required to act without having a fixed concept. By doing so I think that misunderstandings will decrease sharply. (Ken REE)

In short, these returnees' reflections showed an ability to empathize with others. The returnees expressed knowledge of intercultural communication and a desire to avoid misunderstandings. Reflections from nonreturnees demonstrated a stronger interest in the differences between cultures, rather than knowledge in managing the dysfunctions that may arise from a lack of awareness of the viewpoint of another culture.

Focus on Content Over Form

Comments in the first few weeks of the research period highlighted the divide between returnees and nonreturnees. Returnees' comments focused on the content of the class rather than the language used in the class. Nonreturnees displayed a discomfort with speaking in front of others and their comments often showed their concern by comparing themselves with learners who spoke out in the previous class.

> I didn't talk. Speaking English is tense. Speaking English is not easy for me. But I'll try to talk next time. (Aya NR)

> I could hear opinions but I couldn't say my opinion so, I want to say my opinion next class. (Risa NR)

Since the comments that the learners provided in the first 2 weeks of journal reflections focused heavily on the use of English in the classroom, ice-breaking activities like "Mentions," in which participants communicated back and forth by only speaking two words at a time, were introduced. These activities allowed them to get to know each other and force them to communicate without the fear of using "perfect English."

> I think everyone's statement get better. Be everyone is influenced by Kevin (Risa NR)

> First class, we didn't speak in English at all. But now we can speak in English a little. I think it is for us. But we can't speak a lot yet. I didn't like it. A quiet class is not very fun. (Nahoko RNEE)

The statements from the nonreturnees showed the disparity in confidence about communication that existed in the classroom. Although not represented by changes in response scores to the 10 statements on the Perceptual Acuity Scales, at the end of the term, learners further explained a change in thinking that occurred over the term. The following comments from a returnee and nonreturnee showed the change from a focus on form to a focus on content. This returnee's comment reflects development in those who wanted to keep or improve their English ability.

> In the beginning I just wanted to speak more English but now that I started to notice the differences between the cultures. I want to learn about those differences. (Asuka REE)

The following comment from a nonreturnee learner also represents development of ICC with a focus on cultural content over form.

> My opinion is understanding culture. Not speaking. Of course speaking is very important but in CCU class, learning culture is more important. (Haru NR)

In summary, nonreturnees' concern with the use of English was more evident at the beginning of the study term. Journal reflections from both returnees and nonreturnees showed a change in perspective in their goals and achievements toward ICC in this class.

Implications

This study reveals that the development of ICC can be monitored in a classroom setting with the help of qualitative data in the form of journals. In their reflections entries, learners displayed heightened interest in and knowledge of cultures along four of Byram's (2000) categories. This study may imply as follows:

1. Monitoring intercultural development is not possible solely by relying on a perceptual acuity survey.
2. Journals can provide a rich source of data to monitor intercultural development.
3. Differences in L2 language ability and intercultural experience between returnees and nonreturnees can make assessing ICC difficult.

In conclusion, a quantitative measurement, Perceptual Acuity scale, showed no significant change in ICC. Journal reflections, however, showed evidence of heightened interest in others, an ability to change perspective, knowledge of culture, and intercultural communication. Although this evidence was exhibited to differing extents among the learners, both returnees and nonreturnees showed a change in perspective from a focus on language form to a focus on cultural content, a key goal of the Cross-Cultural Understanding course.

Further studies of classrooms with less proficient speakers are needed, as are additional investigations into the classroom dynamics of returnees and nonreturnees in developing ICC.

Bio Data

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Appendix

Perceptual Acuity Scales (PAC)

Circle the number which best describes your feeling.

5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree.

1. I try to understand people's thoughts and feelings when I talk to them. 話す時に相手の考えや気持ちを理解しようと努力する。

   5 4 3 2 1

2. I have a realistic perception of how others see me. 他人が自分をどう見ているのかよくわかっている。

   5 4 3 2 1

3. I am the kind of person who gives people who are different from me that benefit of the doubt. 私は自分と違っている人に対して、ひとまず好意的な見方をする。

   5 4 3 2 1

4. I can perceive how people are feeling, even if they are different from me. たとえ自分と異なる文化圏の人であっても、かれらが何を感じているか読み取ることができる。

   5 4 3 2 1

5. I believe that all cultures have something worthwhile to offer. すべての文化には、何かしら学ぶべき価値があると信じている。

   5 4 3 2 1

6. I pay attention to how people's cultural differences affect their perceptions of me. 文化の違いが、他人が自分を見る目に、どのように影響するか注意を払う。

   5 4 3 2 1

7. I consider the impact my actions have on others. 自分の行動が他人に与える影響について考える。

   5 4 3 2 1

8. When I am with people who are different from me, I interpret their behavior in the context of their culture. 自分と異なる人と一緒にいる時、彼らの立場に立って、行動を理解しようとする。

   5 4 3 2 1

9. When I am in a new or strange environment, I keep an open mind. 新しく慣れていない環境でも、偏見を持たないでいられる。

   5 4 3 2 1

10. In talking with people from other cultures, I pay attention to body language. 他の文化圏の人と話すとき、ボディランゲージに注意を払う。

    5 4 3 2 1

Discourse Analysis in an ESL Community of Practice

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Reference Data:

Nagao, A. (2013). Discourse analysis in an ESL community of practice. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

In this study I examined the process of ESL learners joining different academic learning communities in Australia. Using a sociocultural lens and Lave and Wenger's (1991) communities of practice model, I investigated how newcomers became experienced learners through interactions by documenting their engagement. Participants' classroom interactions were observed and recorded once a week for over 6 months. Discourse analysis, self-reflection, and rhetorical units analysis were used to examine their evolving roles. One implication is that the model of education should shift from knowledge transmission attribution to participant attribution in order to explain how learning takes place within classrooms.

日本人大学生である被験者がオーストラリアの大学付属語学学校であるESL学習コミュニティーに参加し、どのようにメンバー達とかかわり合い言語能力を伸ばしていくかを理解するために、被験者とそのクラスメートの談話を分析した。授業観察・クラスルーム談話分析・インタビュー分析を含んだ追跡調査から、以下の結果を得た。一定期間内で被験者の言語能力の変化の記録に成功し、被験者が帰属する集団内で「周辺的」から「中心的」な役割を果たすようになる為に必要な要素を記録した。

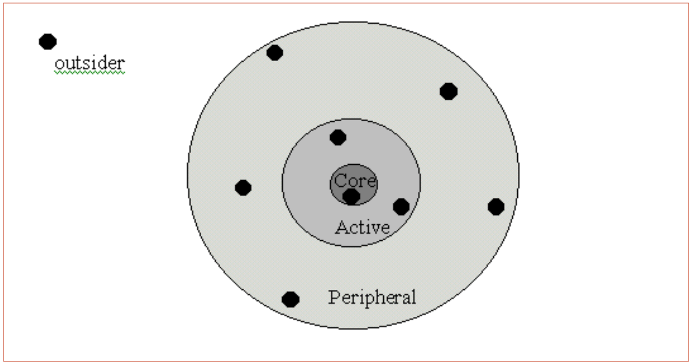
From a sociocultural perspective, I investigated how a newcomer became an experienced learner through interactions in an applied linguistics classroom community by documenting student engagement in peer and classroom discussions. Two fundamental ideas of the socialization theory of language learning formed the basis for this investigation. The first was that people in communities develop social practices and literacy activities through participation in relationships with others (Mickan, 2006, 2013; Wenger, 1998). The second was that to make sense of communities of social practice, newcomers are required to accustom themselves to the meanings and appropriate uses of different semiotic community resources (Halliday, 1978; Mickan, 2006). Thus, I discuss the case of a Japanese university student (J1) and her peers, focusing on how she developed relationships and accessed community resources in pursuing spoken language proficiency in English. In this paper, interviews were used for self-reflection analysis on J1's narratives, and rhetorical unit analysis (RU analysis) was used to investigate and understand her role as a participant in the classroom community. The results of this study on the interactions and self-reflections reveal that language learning in classroom communities is different from learning about language rules and grammatical patterns of usage. Learning occurs when students participate in ongoing communication tasks by using the target language to make meaning. One implication of this research is that the model of language learning education should shift from knowledge transmission attribution to participant attribution in order to better account for how learning takes place within classroom communities of practice, through varieties of social practice.

Literature Review

Communities of Practice (CoP) Model

The perspective I take in this paper is that learning occurs through participation in communities to which participants belong, described as CoPs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Participation is essential not only for learning, but also for the development of the community. The degree of participation in a community falls into one of three groups: peripheral, active, and core (Wenger, 2002). For further clarification, refer to Figure 1.

Figure 1. Wenger's Degree of Community Participation (Adapted From Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder, 2002)



Members who engage in discussion or debate and take on community projects are core members who assume the roles of leaders and coordinators (Wenger, 2002). According to Wenger, McDermott. and Snyder (2002), participants in the core frequently engage in verbal participation and have superior knowledge and understanding compared to other participants because they have had opportunities to work in different contexts and situations in the community. The next level of community membership and participation is active members, who attend activities and events as regular meetings and occasionally participate in community forums, albeit less often than core members. Third are peripheral members, including new members to the community, who keep to the sidelines, watching interactions between core and active members instead of participating in discussions (Wenger et al., 2002). Over time, newcomers can move from the periphery to the core, constructing an identity based on their experiences and the relationships that develop within the CoP, which in turn can transform the community itself. This accommodation and transformation of CoPs through changes and transformation in membership is referred to as "legitimate peripheral participation (LPP)" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 29).

According to Wenger's model, learning occurs through engaging in social practices in a CoP (Guzdial & Tew, 2006). To become community members, newcomers need to observe models of accepted community discourse and receive scaffolding and coaching from more experienced members. In the classroom, this could mean more experienced or proficient students assisting their less experienced or less proficient classmates. This mentoring is necessary because to make sense of communities of social practice, newcomers must acclimate to the shared meanings within their new community and learn to appropriately use its different social practices and semiotic resources (Halliday, 1978; Mickan, 2006). Newcomers can gradually move from peripheral roles to more central roles, thereby achieving fuller participation, transforming into more core, experienced learners who demonstrate: (a) improved and expanded knowledge and skills, (b) changes and improvement in relationships between themselves and other community members, and (c) changes in learners' identities (Takagi, 1999). Identities are formed when "people are generally accustomed to seeing themselves as having a nature and an identity which exist prior to their participation in social groups and the roles and the relations they establish in these groups" (Hyland, 2012, p. 2).

Social Practices

Chapman and Pyvis (2005) stated that in social practices, learning is viewed as "a situated activity in which issues of cognition, context, and social interaction cannot be considered in isolation from each other" (p. 40). From a socio-cultural point of view, people learn because they want to be involved in new activities, complete new tasks, work out new functions, and gain new understandings. These new activities, tasks, functions, and ways of understanding are elements of social practices. Social practices are regular patterns of actions, socially constructed through constant repetition and recognized ways of doing things in a community (Lemke, 1995, p. 102). Diverse social practices, which change according to the stated and understood rules in different communities, are produced in CoPs (Gee & Green, 1998; Luke, 1993; Mickan, Lucas, Davies, & Lim, 2007). These social practices are part of the learning process for all participants whereby language is used to make meaning from cultural practices (Knobel & Healy, 1998; Mickan, 2004).

Self-Reflection

In order to understand how J1 transformed from a newcomer to an experienced learner, different types of social practices in which J1 and her classmates engaged are determined through analysis of J1's self-reflection interview. Learners can learn by reflecting on their experiences (Dewey, 1993), a highly cognitive process. As Daudelin (2003) explained, "When a person engages in reflection, he or she takes an experience from the outside world, brings it inside the mind, turns it over, makes connections to other experiences, and filters it through personal biases" (p. 39). In Bell's (1998) study, self-reflection on learning provided learners an opportunity to evaluate their study and learning approach in order to be able to manage their learning performance, thus showing that learning and reflection are interrelated. Reflection is the process of stepping back from an experience in order to ponder the experience and then to be influenced by the reflection, or as Daudelin (2003) put it, "Learning is the creation of meaning from past or current events that serves as a guide for future behavior" (p. 39). Overall, reflection helps learners to understand themselves, their knowledge, and their roles in societies through interaction with others and can eventually lead to learner autonomy (Waguri, 2010).

Using RU Analysis

In order to identify J1's language features and progress during peer interactions, rhetorical activities were examined using transcribed classroom discourse between J1 and her peers from a selected classroom observation. Rhetorical Units (RU; Cloran, 1994) are influenced by Vygotsky's (1934/1986) notion of the relationship between higher and lower mental functions. Lower mental functions occur in elementary stages of development, such as mother-child interactions (Wake, 2006). For example, a basic mother-child pattern of interaction is directly related to a material base where the child demands goods and services that the mother provides. On the other hand, higher mental functions include the formation of concepts and problem solving. Figure 2 shows the cline represented by RUs, wherein people who engage in higher mental functions can predict future events or stages, guess what might or might not happen, and also express inherent attributes or characteristic functions, while those at the more basic level, such as infants, exhibit less introspective cognitive activity (Wake, 2006).

Figure 2. Cloran's RUs (1994) (Adapted From Wake, 2006, p. 204).

Research Question

This research examines the extent to which one student engaged in different levels of participation during peer discussions using Lave and Wenger's (1991) CoP framework. It considers the demands placed on the subject and her conversational participants in these encounters and explores how the interlocutors met those demands. The present study poses the following research question: How is J1, a newcomer, repositioned as an experienced learner through interacting with classmates and teachers in pair, group, and classroom discussions through varieties of social practices?

Methodology

Data Collection: Classroom Observations and Interviews

This study employed classroom observations and participant interviews. J1's classroom interactions with peers and her teachers were observed and recorded over 6 months between 2007 and 2008, 90 minutes per week. All in-class participant interactions with her peers were recorded and transcribed. Field notes during classroom observations were used for the macro-analysis to understand the classroom dynamics. Recorded interviews with J1 were also conducted immediately after classroom observations. All the recordings were transcribed for analysis.

Data Information: Participants

The main participant in this study was a Japanese student (J1) who had studied English at the English Language Centre of an Australian university for approximately one semester. I chose J1 as a core participant because, having faced difficulty learning English myself, I felt understanding J1's interactions in the language learning classroom might also provide further insight for teaching in EFL classrooms. J1's educational background in Japan included studying English with a teacher-centered, grammar-based approach. While J1 may have had sufficient English proficiency as a result of her past experience, she was new to an English-learning environment and English-focused study. The teaching methodology was based on Feez's (1998) learning cycle and genre teaching approach with collaborating language learning. Learners experience the following cycle: reading and analyzing texts, group discussion, presentations, and reproducing text. Therefore, in Australia, as a newcomer, J1 needed to learn the rules of community participation that shaped her new context. J1 admitted to having become an experienced learner by the end of this research period.

Data Analysis

This section begins with a discussion of the interviews and J1's analysis, considering the extent to which she was conscious of her own growth and increasing community involvement.

Then, a macro-level of analysis of J1's self-reflection interview is conducted. Finally, the RU analysis of J1 and her interactions with her peers offers a micro-social level view of the nature of the interactions in her classroom.

Results

Interview Analysis: Awareness of Transition from Newcomer to Experienced

J1's interviews were analyzed; they demonstrate a transformation from newcomer to experienced learner along with conscious awareness of this change. At first, J1 wanted to be welcomed by her classmates and acknowledged a gap between her previous language learning experience and her new community's expectations. After recognizing differences between herself and other members, she tried to acquire the knowledge and techniques necessary to integrate with the group. Nagao (2012) examined how J1's language features changed over the course of the semester and demonstrated how she successfully improved her participation in the classroom. For example, she said in Japan, she was used to being an experienced English learner; but in the Australian ESL class, she felt inexperienced at first, as the techniques and English skills that served her in Japan provided little preparation for the class discussion necessary in Australia. Thus, J1 found it difficult to adapt to verbal interaction between peers, and her inability to participate in discussions led to her feeling isolated. However, J1 noted that by listening to other members she acquired the skills necessary to participate in the community, feeling she had become an experienced learner in her Australian context by the end of the semester.

Analysis of J1's Self-Reflection

I examined J1's self-reflections through a macro-analysis of a unit of work over a period of 6 months. The aim of this examination was to gain a better understanding of her development within her CoP. J1's self-reflections provided a narrative account of her progress with social practices in developing writing and speaking skills through her work on an essay using authentic reading materials. J1 was required to complete the following sequence of tasks: reading tutorial, text summary, text seminar presentation, individual presentation, and an argumentative essay. Some of J1's learning features and how they developed are explained below; they represent social practices in the CoP to which J1 belonged.

Social Practices as Seeking External Help

J1 read the text summary assignment article three times. She asked her host sister to check her notes. Her lack of confidence motivated her to ask her host sister to proofread it.

> I was not sure whether I understood the article well so I asked my host sister to help me reading and check my notes. If I did not understand the article well, it will be a problem because I have to give a small presentation in the reading tutorial. (personal communication, 27 Nov 2007)

J1 wanted to clarify her questions concerning the article. She summarized each paragraph to better understand it. When J1 encountered sentences that she did not understand, she asked for help to identify particular words. For example, she would ask her host sister, "What does infertility treatment mean?" and "Could you explain what this sentence means?" When responding to J1's questions, her host sister recontextualized the vocabulary into everyday speech, thus J1 was able to understand the meaning of the sentences through these interactions.

Visiting someone to ask for external help can be a form of social practice, which created the opportunity for J1 to belong with another CoP. While J1 was unable to understand the sentences in the article by herself, by working with her host sister, she could recontextualize the written text into spoken text, thus enhancing her learning. Through this, J1 learned new ways of organizing meaning-making processes in her target language.

Social Practice as Proofreading

One of J1's new methods of organizing the meaning-making process in the target language was to work with a proofreader.

> I asked my host sister to check my English in the essay before I submitted it. She said she tried to keep my writing and changed only my grammatical mistakes. But when she started to correct my grammar mistakes she sometimes changed my entire sentence. I found many grammatical and word choice's mistakes in my writing. To talk with her is very helpful for me because she taught me proper language choice (personal communication, 27 Nov 2007).

Asking someone to proofread can be a social practice because "the proofreading process [is] a constant conformation with one reader's meaning making operation" (Teramoto & Mickan 2008, p. 52). J1's host sister tried to respect J1's lexical and grammatical choices. However, those choices were, at times, incorrect. Therefore, the host sister modified and paraphrased some of the sentences in her essay to improve intelligibility. J1 was satisfied that her written sentences became more comprehensible to her readers. For example, at first she tended not to use causative verbs such as *make* to express the idea that a person requires another person to do something. Her host sister encouraged J1 to use *make* as a causative verb in her writing, which gave J1 the feeling of writing more easily understood sentences. After J1 discussed this with her host sister, she realized that the majority of her notes were written verbatim from the article and it was necessary to change them into her own words. She thus came to understand the benefits of recontextualizing the formal written language of the article into everyday speech in order to explain the content of the article to peers in the classroom. Using everyday speech rather than technical language was a better method for J1 to help her listeners understand her explanation.

Rhetorical Units Analysis

This section explains the results of applying rhetorical units analysis to the data gathered from J1's interactions to examine how J1's language features changed during the semester. J1's language changes imply that she shifted from a new to an experienced learner in classroom CoP.

This analysis focuses on one text in particular that is part of a longer discourse in which a newcomer (New) and two students (J1 and M) discuss some features of an authentic art review for an oral presentation. When the data were collected, it was the newcomer's 3rd week of studying in the English Language Centre, while J1 and M had been in the program for about 7 months.

As J1 was a relatively more experienced learner compared with the newcomer, I expected her rhetorical activities would tend to consist of higher mental functions than those of the newcomer. To illustrate RU analysis in detail, eight kinds of RUs have been identified in the students' verbal interactions in this extract, reflecting a cline from lower to higher mental function: action, commentary, observation, reflection, account, prediction, conjecture, and generalization (Figure 3). The following descriptions provide examples of how the students engaged in different types of rhetorical activities, from lower mental functions to higher ones.

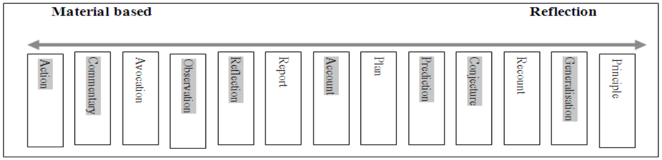


Figure 3. Summary of the Discourse: J1, M, and New Students' Interactions in RUs (Adapted From Wake, 2006, p. 208).

Starting from the right of the scale, or higher mental functions, a generalization unit is an example of an RU. The function of generalization is to "mak[e] class exhaustive reference to whatever class of entity" (Wake, 2006, p. 217) and is considered a higher mental function. For example, in messages 179 and 181, M explains that Aboriginal paintings are currently very popular, a generally true fact, not simply the student's own experience (Extract 1).

Extract 1 RU generalization

176.	M	maybe after the exhibition sell
177.	J1	sell
178.	M	yeah
179.	M	usually usually people now now a day (RU: *Generalization*)
180.	New	um-hum
181.	M	Aboriginal painting are very famous

Overall Analysis of Rhetorical Activity

In order to identify differences in rhetorical activities between the newcomer and the more experienced learners, their messages during peer discussion were compared.

Table 1 shows the new student used fewer varieties of RUs than J1 and M. For example, J1 employed five types of RUs including observation, reflection, account, conjecture, and generalization. M employed an even wider range of RUs, from action to generalization. In contrast, the new student's rhetorical activities included a narrower range of observation, reflection, and account. One way to account for this difference is that J1 and M had attended the English course for approximately 7 months, and thus they were more experienced learners than the newcomer, which allowed them to use more strategies more comfortably.

One supposition according to the theoretical model was that a large number of lower mental functions such as action and commentary would be found in the newcomer's utterances, but the newcomer instead appears to have used middle level mental functions such as reflection and account rather than low level functions (Table 1). Furthermore, the experienced learners did not restrict themselves to higher level functions, but appeared to use the full range of functions available to them (Table 1). This indicates that rather than new learners using lower level functions and experienced learners using higher functions, experienced learners may instead have a greater ability to choose from a variety of rhetorical activities, from lower to higher, while newcomers are restricted to fewer rhetorical activities.

Table 1. Number of RUs Used by J1, M, and the New Student

RU type	Experienced students			New student
	J1	M	Total	
Action		2	2	
Commentary		2	2	
Avocation				
Observation	6	3	9	1
Reflection	1	3	4	2
Report				
Account	1	7	8	2
Plan				
Prediction		3	3	
Conjecture	2	1	3	
Recount				
Generalisation	1	2	3	
Principle				

Discussion

J1 had acquired the necessary skills to be able to use the appropriate social practices to make sense of what she was learning through interactions with other group members. Results from J1's self-reflections indicated that she applied the hypothetical process to become an experienced learner as a result of being exposed to a variety of social practices. Initially, J1 became self-aware of her role as a peripheral participant when joining the community. As a new member, she felt that she needed to be accepted by other members during verbal interactions. She followed the same procedures that the majority of students adopted in order to complete tasks such as reading authentic articles. However, that learning process proved inappropriate for J1. As a result, she discovered her own strategy by asking for extra help from others to finish the reading assignment, showing how she tried to discover appropriate processes to enhance her language learning, processes that are themselves a social practice. Hence, she performed both the role of peripheral and active participant and increased her participation during peer discussions in the classroom community. Meanwhile, when new members joined her classroom community, in interacting with the new group, J1 gradually acknowledged that she was no longer a newcomer, which increased her confidence as an experienced learner (personal communication, 3 Feb 2008). Furthermore, in classroom discussions at the end of the semester, she could respond to another student's question during peer interaction, engaging in coparticipation to help the new student. Thus, accepting the new learners enabled J1 to recognize herself as an experienced learner rather than a peripheral participant.

Furthermore, while the new student used lower or middle level mental function RUs, such as observation, when engaged in verbal interactions with peers, the experienced learners used not only higher levels of mental functions such as generalizing, but also lower level functions. This means that experienced learners may have a greater ability to choose semiotic resources such as lexicogrammar and semantics, indicating that degree of experience in the classroom community influences conversation strategy choice.

Conclusion

Community building and community participation are natural processes, and the concept of CoP is not limited to English learning. People in communities negotiate, interact, and work together towards the same goal. In language classrooms, learners participate at different levels. Newcomers, as peripheral participants, are less skilled than experienced learners.

To become more experienced, they need exposure to a variety of social practices through working with other members. The social practices central to J1 becoming an experienced learner in her classroom community shows language learning education should be viewed through a participant metaphor rather than a knowledge transmission metaphor.

Comparing J1's contributions to those of her newcomer peers through classroom discourse and RU analysis suggests that J1 has become more experienced and has a greater ability to choose proper semiotic resources such as lexicogrammar and semantics. On the other hand, the new student tended to use lower or middle level mental function RUs such as observations. This indicates that after 7 months in this classroom, J1 had become a core or active participant in the classroom community. Moreover, the self-reflection analysis allows understanding of how J1 changed psychologically from an LPP to a full member.

Many issues regarding CoP emerged from this observation and analysis but could not be discussed in detail because this study consisted of short-term classroom observations. One main issue relates to student development from new to full classroom community member. A long-term study into learner development as community members would further enrich the findings presented here.

Bio Data

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Extracurricular Programmes in EFL: Learning Opportunities Outside the Classroom

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This paper presents a theoretical and empirical investigation into how opportunities outside of the classroom make a difference to the study experiences of EFL students studying abroad. There has been relatively little research conducted on the importance of opportunities outside the classroom for EFL students or how this affects learning (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). Yet, extracurricular opportunities present students with wide-ranging opportunities for natural language exposure and pastoral care in the form of sociocultural interaction. This study extends an understanding of the role of extracurricular activity (ECA) programmes by comparing long-term observational data with demographic variables. The results suggest that cultural background and sex in particular influence the value students place on ECA. This may reflect differences in student perceptions of the value of enculturation in language acquisition (see Bernstein, 2003; Bourdieu, 1991; Horibe, 2008).

本論文は、授業外での経験が留学中のEFL学習者の学習経験にどのような影響を与えるかについて行った、理論的、かつ経験的な調査について述べたものである。EFL学習者にとっての授業外経験の重要性や授業外経験が学習に与える影響について行われた研究は、比較的少ない（Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003）。しかし、授業課程外の経験は社会文化的交流という形で、学習者に自然な言語に広く接する機会と心理療法的効果を与える。本研究は、長期に渡る観察データと人口統計学的変数を比較して、課外活動の役割への理解を広めるものである。研究の結果、学習者の課外活動に対する価値観に特に影響を与えるのは、文化的背景と性別であることが分かった。このことは、言語習得における文化適応力に対する学習者の価値観の相違を反映している可能性がある（see Bernstein, 2003; Bourdieu, 1991; Horibe, 2008）。

This paper presents a brief practical outline of extracurricular activity (ECA) programmes, a preliminary empirical investigation, and theoretical discussion of the role these programmes play in the experiences of EFL students studying abroad. ECA differs from curricular EFL programmes in that it runs outside of class time, is less pedagogically structured, and is voluntary for students.

While there is a variety of literature available on the curricular theory and practice of EFL education, there is a notable lack of material concerning student engagement outside the classroom. Relatively little investigation has been done on how studying abroad affects students' learning or on international student tourism behaviour (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). Reasons for studying abroad are multi-faceted, dynamic, and complex. The actual time spent in the classroom context and working on classroom-related tasks (homework, self-study, etc.) constitutes a relatively small proportion of a student's time in the native-speaker context. As such, an examination of what students do outside of curricular time is important as these interactions are likely to have a meaningful impact on the learning experience. As MacCannell (1999) pointed out, leaving one's own context necessitates new sociocultural experiences. Consequently, extracurricular engagement must constitute a reasonably large element of students' study abroad, regardless of their orientation towards it. In recognition of this, national bodies, such as English New Zealand, require member institutions to offer ECA to their students as part of pastoral care management.

Unlike EFL curriculum, ECA is vernacular, making it highly adaptive to student interests. A wide range of activities can be offered as a part of ECA programmes, ranging from sports and recreation to cultural experiences and out of town trips and tours. ECA offers a variety of benefits to EFL students and hosting institutions. It is widely understood within the practice of EFL that native-speaker culture and language are inseparable and culture should be incorporated into teaching practice (Horibe, 2008). ECA extends this logic by providing opportunities for students to learn and practise language skills outside the classroom environment by facilitating engagement in the native-speaker context. This occurs actively in language-based activities (such as conversation clubs with native speakers), or passively through naturalistic exposure. In addition to EFL study benefits, ECA provides pastoral care to students through social opportunities and facilitates a community atmosphere. Study-abroad students are typically isolated from social-support networks (families, friends, etc.), making them prone to homesickness and culture shock. To compound this, cultural contexts often create a number of implicit social barriers which preclude authentic engagement (Goffman, 1959; MacCannell, 1999). ECA helps students to negotiate these sociocultural obstacles by facilitating cultural participation and breaking down language barriers.

Engaging students in ECA presents a unique set of challenges. These range from the appropriateness of particular activities for different groups of students, to practical logistics and cost management. Most of these issues can be attended to through regular review and adjustment of the programme as part of working towards best practice. However, it appears that student perceptions of the relevance of ECA to EFL study impacts participation. Generally, some groups of students are noticeably more likely to participate than others.

Learner beliefs, including motivations, are important factors in EFL student success, and there is a dynamic interaction between what the students believe and do in terms of outcome success (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). Student perceptions also appear to impact engagement outside the classroom. The English as an International Language (EIL) perspective posits that some students study EFL as an instrumental and acultural communication medium. For EIL students, EFL is a means to some other end, and this rationalised view of EFL suggests that native-speaker enculturation is of less value (Horibe, 2008). This may explain why some students are less inclined to participate in ECA. There are a variety of reasons why students may view EFL instrumentally, and one of these, examined in the current study, is the need for English competence to study in other fields as a non-English speaking background (NESB) student. NESB students discontinue their EFL studies once they begin studying other fields, for example nursing or engineering.

From an economic perspective, it is difficult to rationalise the instrumental relevance of target-language enculturation to EFL learners who have a low probability of living in a native-speaker context or who intend to return home to complete their studies and work. Nonetheless, study-abroad opportunities are popular, suggesting that native-speaker context experiences are incorporated into an aestheticized view of EFL. Holbrook and Hirschman's (1982) theory of hedonic consumption suggested that nonrational or hedonic factors also play a role in consumption practices. This perspective is complimented by sociolinguistic theories which suggest that language acquisition is implicit and complicit in cultural consumption. In particular, consumer behaviour studies suggest that cosmopolitanism is central to the reproduction of middle-class lifestyles. Like homestays and other middle-class tourism practices, ECA goes beyond the front-stage performative aspects of the standard tourist experience and facilitates more authentic involvement with the hosting culture (see also Goffman, 1959). Thus for some students, studying language abroad implies that a certain value is placed on the opportunity for cosmopolitan and middle-class culture appropriation (Bernstein, 2003; Bourdieu, 1991, 1993; Holt, 1998; MacCannell, 1999; Ward, Cohen, & Dean, 2011).This helps to explain why some EFL students are more likely to value enculturating experiences as part of their studies abroad. In the current discussion, this practice will be referred to as the English-and-Enculturation (EAE) perspective. It seems reasonable to infer that students who take an EAE perspective are more likely to engage in ECA opportunities.

To help to better understand the relationship between study perspectives and the value placed on extracurricular opportunities, the following presents an empirical investigation into ECA participation patterns and EFL and NESB student demographics. In this research I intend to focus on students of diverse cultural backgrounds and aim to examine if there are any sociocultural factors that underpin the observed differences in preferences. Observational data collected from 2009 through 2011 at a technical institute in New Zealand are drawn on.

Research Questions

1. What kinds of ECA experiences do EFL students value?
2. Do particular groups of EFL students value ECA differently?
3. How do ECA participation rates relate to NESB demographic patterns?

Method

Student participation in the ECA programme was collated according to the type and cost of activity participated in. The types of activity in the programme were classified as sports (surfing, skiing, rock-climbing, etc.), recreation (ice-skating, bowling, boating, etc.), cultural (museums, art galleries, etc.) and noncultural experiences (zoos, aquariums, etc.), hospitality (restaurants, cafés, and bars), and out-of-town trips (one-day and overnight tours).

This data was then compared with student enrolment data over the same period and at the same institution, including nationality, sex, age, and the average proportion of enrolled-full-time-student (EFTS) points. EFTS data is of especial importance to the current study as EFL students often undertake varied study programmes of less than one enrolled full-time year (1.0 EFTS). Students of particular nationalities tend to make up a smaller fraction of total student enrolments yet tend to undertake longer courses of study. For example, a student who studies abroad for 1 year is weighted 1.0 EFTS point and for one semester 0.5 EFTS points. Because EFL students study abroad for different lengths of time, using EFTS provides a more accurate base for comparison with participation rates in the ECA programme across the same timeframe.

Results

Over the period of observation (January 2009-December 2011) there were 1844 student registrations for the programme. Within the EFL school and ECA programme, the largest groups of students were Japanese, Chinese, South Korean, and Saudi. (Refer to Table 1.) Although there were a number of students of other nationalities, none of these exceeded 5%, and thus fell outside the standard statistical margin of error. For the purposes of analysis these students were grouped as *other*. Because of the various nationalities grouped as other, these results should be viewed tentatively.

The results of the study indicate that student nationality and sex played important roles in participation rates in the ECA programme. There was no significant difference in the average age of the different nationality groups. As the following analyses demonstrate, although there was some similarity in the behaviour patterns of the different student groups, some of these groups were statistically significantly far more inclined to engage outside of the classroom than others.

Table 1. Percentage of International Students Studying EFL or NESB Courses and Participating in ECA Programme (2009 – 2011)

Nationality	EFL School*	ECA	NESB*
Japanese	20.80	39.80	1.97
Korean	22.92	21.00	2.93
Chinese	24.39	17.70	30.82
Saudi	15.26	15.20	2.07
Other	16.63	6.40	62.21

*Percentage of enrolled full-time students

Table 1 shows that students were differentially inclined to participate in the ECA programme. In particular, some nationalities joined the programme significantly more than others. When comparing the relative percentage of EFL and NESB students with the percentage participating in the ECA programme, the observed pattern is statistically significant ($\chi^2_{(df = 8)} = 126.22$, $p < 0.00$). Japanese students represented a disproportionately large number of students joining the ECA programme compared to their fraction of the EFL school (39.80% and 20.80% respectively). Korean and Saudi students tended to participate at rates consistent with their fraction of the EFL student body, and Chinese and other students tended to underparticipate. While Chinese students composed 24.39% of the EFL school, they only accounted for 17.70% of the students in the ECA programme. Similarly, other students made up 16.63% of the EFL school, yet only 6.40% of these students participated in ECA.

When comparing the participation rates of each student nationality in the ECA programme to the percentage of NESB students at the same institution, it is interesting to note that the pattern described above is reversed. While a significant percentage of students joining ECA were Japanese, there were almost no Japanese NESB students (39.80% and 1.97% respectively). In contrast, although the percentage of Chinese and other students was lower in the ECA programme compared to their fraction of the EFL school, there were more Chinese and other NESB students. This suggests that nationalities of students who are more inclined to become NESB students are less inclined to join ECA, and may be more instrumental in their EFL orientation.

As Figure 1 shows, this pattern of participation in the ECA programme for each nationality was relatively consistent across the 3 years surveyed. Although the absolute numbers of students participating in the programme changed over the years, the relative proportion of students of each nationality was approximately the same.

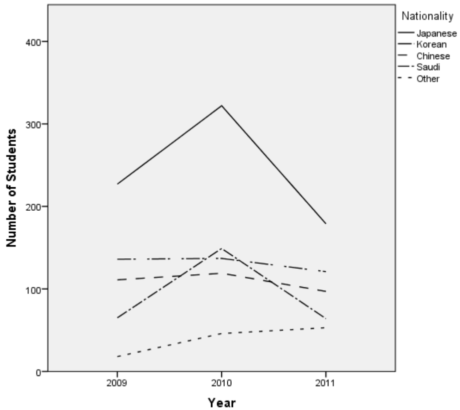

Figure 1. Student Participation Rates in ECA Programme by Nationality (2009 - 2011)

As can be seen in Table 2, each of the nationalities had a statistically significant pattern of preference for activities ($\chi^2_{(df = 20)} = 121.70$, $p < 0.00$). There were similarities and differences in the patterns of participation; recreation activities were the most popular across all of the groups.

Table 3 shows that although approximately the same number of male and female students joined the programme, there was again a statistically significant pattern of preferences ($\chi^2_{(df = 5)} = 47.38$, $p < 0.00$). In particular, more female students took out-of-town trips, and more males joined recreation activities.

Table 2. Student Nationality by the Type of Activity Participated in

Activity		Nationality: Japanese	Korean	Chinese	Saudi	Other
Cultural experience	# of students	(n = 84)	(n = 32)	(n = 42)	(n = 29)	(n = 8)
	% within cultural experience	43.1%	16.4%	21.5%	14.9%	4.1%
	% within nationality	11.5%	8.3%	13.0%	10.4%	6.8%
Hospitality	# of students	(n = 141)	(n = 73)	(n = 54)	(n = 46)	(n = 20)
	% within hospitality	42.2%	21.9%	16.2%	13.8%	6.0%
	% within nationality	19.4%	19.0%	16.7%	16.5%	17.1%
Noncultural experience	# of students	(n = 87)	(n = 51)	(n = 48)	(n = 71)	(n = 18)
	% within noncultural experience	31.6%	18.5%	17.5%	25.8%	6.5%
	% within nationality	12.0%	13.3%	14.8%	25.5%	15.4%
Out-of-town trip	# of students	(n = 123)	(n = 26)	(n = 32)	(n = 8)	(n = 5)
	% within out-of-town trip	63.4%	13.4%	16.5%	4.1%	2.6%
	% within nationality	16.9%	6.8%	9.9%	2.9%	4.3%
Recreation	# of students	(n = 167)	(n = 106)	(n = 83)	(n = 93)	(n = 42)
	% within recreation	34.0%	21.6%	16.9%	18.9%	8.6%
	% within nationality	22.9%	27.6%	25.6%	33.5%	35.9%
Sport	# of students	(n = 126)	(n = 96)	(n = 65)	(n = 31)	(n = 24)
	% within sports	36.8%	28.1%	19.0%	9.1%	7.0%
	% within nationality	17.3%	25.0%	20.1%	11.2%	20.5%

Table 3. Type of ECA Participated in by Gender

		Sex	
		Female	Male
Cultural experience	# of students	(n = 102)	(n = 93)
	% within cultural experience	52.3%	47.7%
	% within sex	11.0%	10.3%
Hospitality	# of students	(n = 163)	(n = 171)
	% within hospitality	48.8%	51.2%
	% within sex	17.6%	18.9%
Noncultural experience	# of students	(n = 140)	(n = 135)
	% within noncultural experience	50.9%	49.1%
	% within sex	15.1%	14.9%
Out-of-town trip	# of students	(n = 135)	(n = 59)
	% within out-of-town trip	69.6%	30.4%
	% within sex	14.6%	6.5%
Recreation	# of students	(n = 202)	(n = 289)
	% within recreation	41.1%	58.9%
	% within sex	21.8%	31.9%
Sport	# of students	(n = 183)	(n = 159)
	% within sport	53.5%	46.5%
	% within sex	19.8%	17.5%
Total	# of students	(n = 925)	(n = 906)
	% within activities	50.5%	49.5%
	% within sex	100.0%	100.0%

Although it appears that both sexes participated at approximately the same rate, this trend is distorted by the absence of female Saudi students. Further, as Table 4 shows, a significant proportion of the Japanese and Korean students who participated in the ECA programme were female ($\chi^2_{(df = 4)} = 401.69$, $p < 0.00$).

Table 4. Percentage of Students in ECA Programme by Sex and Nationality

		Nationality				
Sex		Japanese	Korean	Chinese	Saudi	Other
Female	# of students	(n = 485)	(n = 236)	(n = 171)	(n = 0)	(n = 33)
	% within sex	52.4%	25.5%	18.5%	0.0%	3.6%
	% within nationality	66.6%	61.5%	52.8%	0.0%	28.2%
Male	# of students	(n = 243)	(n = 148)	(n = 153)	(n = 278)	(n = 84)
	% within sex	26.8%	16.3%	16.9%	30.7%	9.3%
	% within nationality	33.4%	38.5%	47.2%	100.0%	71.8%

The pattern of participation mirrors the statistically significantly different volume of student expenditure on ECA ($F_{(4,1579)} = 11.08$, $p < 0.00$), as shown in Table 5. It appears that the groups of students who participated more in ECA also spent on average more money on the programme. This suggests that students who have more discretionary income are more likely to participate in the ECA programme. However, this result is due to an interaction between the cost of particular types of activities and nationality. In particular, there was a significant difference in expenditure on cheaper activities provided by the institution ($F_{(4,1278)} = 5.51$, $p < 0.00$), but not for those more expensive out-of-town trips provided by third parties ($F_{(4,296)} = 1.61$, n.s.), and this difference is itself statistically significant ($t_{(1582)} = -26.84$, $p <$ 0.00). Further, when separating the activity types in this way, the pattern differs from that of participation. In particular, Korean and other students spent noticeably more on institution-provided activities than Japanese students. Additionally, Saudi students tended to spend more on the more expensive out-of-town trips provided by third parties. Therefore, ECA participation is not reducible to the financial circumstances of the different nationalities of students.

Table 5. Average Expenditure by Student Nationality on ECA Programme in New Zealand Dollars

Nationality	Average	Institution-provided activities	Third-party-provided out-of-town trips
Japanese	$77.10	$20.36	$215.93
Korean	$57.20	$25.47	$211.11
Chinese	$44.72	$16.88	$209.84
Saudi	$38.07	$17.45	$289.74
Other	$37.69	$26.41	$218.17
Average	$58.31	$20.64	$218.90

The distribution of students within the sample is relatively consistent with wider study patterns in New Zealand, suggesting that the observed ECA participation rates may be generalizable. As Table 6 shows, the proportion of nationalities studying in English language schools in 2011 and 2012 are much the same as those of the sample presented, although more students classified as other were accounted for (Education Counts, 2012). The higher proportion of Chinese students in the sample collected is probably a consequence of the sampling site being located within a technical institute, thus allowing EFL students to pathway into mainstream study and to become NESB students.

Table 6. New Zealand International Student Study Rates (%)

	English Language (2 d.p.)		Tertiary 2012 (0 d.p.)	
Nationality	2011	2012	Polytechnics	Universities
Japanese	20.49	20.94	5	4
Korean	17.22	12.37	4	5
Chinese	7.87	11.40	33	38
Saudi	8.97	7.54	5	6
Other	45.45	44.75	53	47

Source: Education Counts, 2012

Discussion

It is a commonly held belief among EFL educators and students that living in a native-speaker context is the best way to acquire language and improve inter-cultural awareness (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). However, this research has shown evidence that ECA programmes are differentially valued; some groups of students appear significantly more inclined to engage in opportunities outside the classroom. Further, students of different nationalities and sex have different preferences.

It appears that there is an inverse relationship between ECA participation by nationality within the EFL school and the composition of the NESB student body. From this, there is evidence that international students who are studying EFL with instrumental goals are less inclined to take up extracurricular opportunities and engage in the native-speaker context. In particular, Chinese and other students make up a significantly larger fraction of NESB and a smaller proportion of ECA. From the observed patterns it is difficult to determine whether this pattern of behaviour is explicable in terms of cultural differences or an advent of study goals. Nonetheless, ECA value is not simply reducible to the economic circumstances of particular groups of students because ECA expenditure by nationality differs from participation. It also is worth recognising that the providing institution arranges bulk-purchasing discounts and passes these onto students. Consequently, if financial constraints impact ECA participation, then the students concerned are even less likely to be able to afford to engage in similar enculturating opportunities under their own initiative.

Together, these results suggest that ECA programmes are more than just idiosyncratic entertainment options for students. Student participation reflects a complex interplay of sociocultural factors. Particularly, not all EFL study-abroad choices are driven by a strictly rational tendency to maximise educational utility. Thus, there is evidence that particular groups of students are more inclined to adopt EIL or EAE perspectives. In these regards, the current study makes an important contribution to the EFL literature.

To a certain extent, the EIL and EAE perspectives are bridged by Allen (2002), who suggested that student orientation to educational choices are overdetermined and naturalised by the relationship of the students' socialising context (particularly the family, social origin, and social trajectory) to macrosocial rules and institutions. These predispose particular groups of students towards either a relatively pragmatic or liberal view of education and occupational choices. This argument and the observed relationships of study patterns to ECA are underscored by the typically instrumental orientation of NESB students towards economically pragmatic study fields. In New Zealand the most popular NESB fields are commerce (28%), information technology (5%), natural and physical sciences, health, and engineering (all 4%) (Education Counts, 2012). Consequently, it may be better to view EIL and EAE as being manifest social theories of education which are indicative of latent socialising processes. The implication of this is that ECA participation reflects student predispositions to take up cosmopolitan opportunities as a function of their wider socialised orientation to education.

However, this emphasis on sociohistoric contexts moderating student choice generates a number of practical and theoretical problems for the current study. Essentially, the EIL and EAE theoretical perspectives draw on incommensurable ontologies and epistemologies (c.f. Kuhn, 1996; Newton-Smith, 1981). Importantly, EIL suggests that students rationally elect not to engage with the associated culture of the language they are studying. As such, the structuralist and poststructuralist roots of EAE conflict with the positivism of EIL in two important respects. Firstly, structuralism and poststructuralism are theories which emphasise social class as the primary socialising mechanism, not national boundaries. Indeed, other EFL studies have shown that age, culture, and background have an influence on language-learning beliefs (Tanaka & Ellis, 2003). Further, the theoretical roots of EAE do not delineate language from culture and stress the former as fundamental in the reproduction and stratification of the latter. As previously noted, EAE's problematisation of EIL is compounded by that fact that when studying abroad, some degree of enculturation is inevitable in the course of daily interaction. However, this does not preclude the fact that particular groups of students and practitioners may adopt an EIL perspective in their respective learning and delivery strategies (Bernstein, 2003; Bourdieu, 1991; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Horibe, 2008; MacCannell, 1999).

These issues could be clarified by further research examining if there are socioeconomic differences between particular groups of students who study abroad. It may be the case, for example, that students from developing countries such as China tend to be more instrumental in their EFL studies and adopt an EIL perspective. Any observed differences in acultural demographic variables, such as symbolic capital, could help to explain this interrelationship between scholastic orientation and cosmopolitanism as part of EFL acquisition and whether these are more likely for particular nationalities (c.f., Allen, 2002; Holt, 1998). Because the current study relies entirely on observational data, it would also be valuable to investigate the relationship between student opinions on the value of ECA and their participation behaviour. There is also a need to assess the relationship and impact of ECA participation on EFL acquisition and expression. Such research may help to clarify the EIL and EAE debate.

Conclusions, Implications, and Future Directions

Although only preliminary, in the current study I have made a number of observations which could provide the basis for further study. Notably, the results suggest that extracurricular experiences are more important to some groups of students than others. This may hold importance for EFL programme design in terms of the emphasis placed on native-speaker culture content in the classroom.

This study also has implications for institutional recruitment strategies. It makes a contribution towards a better understanding of student choice and motivation to study abroad, and may help to improve the marketability of study abroad programmes and EFL schools, particularly given the importance of word-of-mouth recommendations in study destination choices of international students (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2003; Michael, Armstrong, & King, 2003). This may be important in a context of online social media such as Facebook, Twitter, and Mixi, where students often blog and upload their extracurricular experiences.

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Helping Students Pass the Turing Test

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Spoken language consists of more than just correctly formed propositional utterances placed one after another. Rather, speakers orient towards an interactional role and construct turns that are delicately shaped by the previous speaker's turn and designed to move the interaction forward. In this paper I describe some of the ways in which students can orient away from an institutional identity towards a more interactional, natural way of speaking. I refer to video data of student conversations to show some of the characteristics of Japanese students' speaking and discuss the content and methodology of lessons designed to promote a more interactional kind of talk. I conclude by suggesting that a focus on such interactional skills as backchanneling and use of discourse markers set within a framework of autonomy in speaking can help students to create an interactional identity in English.

会話はただ正確な発話から成り立つだけとは限らない。それどころか話し相手との繊細な対話によってやり取りは進んでいく。本論は、自然な会話をするには、学生的な（決まりきったやり取りをする）アイデンティティーから離れて、もっと双方向で自然な言葉のやりとりをする方法をいくつか示す。生徒のビデオデーターを基に日本人生徒の特有の話し方を引用し、授業でのより双方向な言葉のやり取りなど推進した内容と方法を論じる。最後に、本論は、会話のやり取りの知識として、自立性のある会話の枠組みの中での相づちや談話標識(つなぎ言葉）などに焦点を合わせることが、生徒が独自の英語のやり取りを作る上で役立つと提案する。

In this paper I outline a view of language based on an analogy with the Turing Test. It is suggested that language use is based on interactivity and co-construction of dialogue between participants—machine and human in the case of the Turing Test, and learner and learner in the language classroom. I then go on to suggest that the institutional nature of language classrooms often precludes the emergence of this kind of interactive language in learners. A method for diminishing the institutional nature of the language classroom and creating a venue for conversation is proposed and the paper concludes by outlining some results of the reorientation away from an institutional view of L2 learning and towards an interactive co-constructed model of language in use.

Language as Interaction: The Turing Test Analogy

Alan Turing was a British scientist who pioneered early computing and machine intelligence. The Turing Test generally refers to Turing's influential paper (Turing, 1950) which addressed the question as to whether a machine can think, invoking a nuanced imitation game involving a machine and human interactants, with the machine attempting to imitate human responses. For the purposes of this paper, the crux of the test is that the machine can pass the test by modifying its own output in response to the output of the human. If the machine gives nothing but anodyne and stock *safe* responses, applied with simple algorithms, it will quickly give the game away. The machine must be an interactant, not a merely a reactant, to pass the test.

Nobody doubts that students learning English are human, but in the context of English language education in Japan, I am suggesting that the Turing test may be a useful way to think about the goals of language learning. In simple terms, this means that learners must orient themselves away from the institutional goal of passive memorization and production-on-demand that characterizes much of what goes on in language classrooms. Instead, they must reorient themselves to the goal of taking part in unrehearsed, spontaneous spoken interactions in English. To pass this version of the Turing test, learners must demonstrate to their partner not that they have memorized a certain amount of vocabulary and grammar and are able to produce it correctly on demand, but that they are active partners in the interaction, using language to pursue interactive goals in real-time.

Institutional Orientation

The L2 classroom is an institutional setting. The teacher is expected to, and usually does, fulfill the role(s) of teacher, and likewise the learners are expected to, and usually do, fulfill the role(s) of learners. Consequently the language used in the classroom reflects the ways in which the speakers orient to an institutional identity and talk those identities into being. One way classroom talk is structured is the three-part sequence described by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). In this pattern the teacher initiates the interaction, the learner provides a response and the teacher then gives feedback on that response. This pattern, referred to as IRF, is untypical of most other kinds of spoken interaction. Another pattern, familiar to many English teachers in Japan, is a tendency for students to "talk around the circle" (see Carroll, 2005). In speaking activities that the teacher has imagined as communicative, students speak in strict order—A followed by B, then by C, and then back to A. Again, this kind of speaking is not found in normal, spontaneous conversation.

If English mainly exists for learners within an institutional setting and for the purposes of fulfilling institutional roles, then it seems likely that the kind of English that learners are habituated to producing will be at variance with the kind of English that is produced for normal (i.e., noninstitutional) interactions. Other manifestations of classroom talk are, for example, students being unable to nominate turns (self or other) with any kind of ease, creating extensive pauses. Once a student has accepted speakership, they may structure their turn as the response turn of an IRF cycle, responding with a single proposition without any expansion. Learners may also engage in extensive self-correction as they attempt to form grammatically correct utterances. In their institutional roles, students have no right to introduce their own topics and no right to evaluate or contradict the speech of others, especially the teacher. Learners have no power to nominate self or others to speakership, no right to reject tasks or refuse to answer a question on the grounds that the teacher already knows the answer, and so on. In short, their orientation to their institutional roles precludes them from utilizing normal interactional strategies to manage the speaking they are engaged in. Bueno and Ceaser (2003) described ways in which learners (and teachers) in EFL classrooms in Japan orient to the expected institutional identities. The underlying narrative is the great difficulty that many Japanese learners have in orienting away from the institutional identities expected of them, so strong is the socialization process in Japanese education. (See McVeigh, 2003, for an account of the importance of roles in Japanese society.)

Communication and the L2 Classroom

Seedhouse (2004) raised the question as to whether genuine communication can ever take place within the institutional setting of an SLA classroom. By genuine communication Seedhouse meant the kind of daily conversation as described by Nunan (1987):

> Genuine conversation is characterized by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through for example, clarification requests and confirmation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs. (p. 137)

After discussion of the relativity of the term *genuine* from a conversation analysis (CA) perspective, Seedhouse (2004) went on to state; "I will now argue that it is, in theory, not possible for L2 teachers to replicate conversation (in its CA sense) in the L2 classroom as part of a lesson" (p. 69). Seedhouse's argument is based upon his premise that "the stated purpose of L2 institutions is to teach the L2 to foreigners" (p. 70) and that once this purpose is invoked, whatever language use that does take place cannot be conversation as defined in CA terms. The underlying assumptions of the communicative approach are seen to be in contradiction, in that learners are assumed to learn best by engaging in genuine conversation, but cannot engage in genuine conversation where the institutional setting of a lesson precludes the very behavior that it is supposed to bring about. However, I will suggest that this apparent contradiction is not irresolvable.

Creating a Venue for Conversation

Widdowson (1987) described some of the familiar scenes of the social activity called a lesson.

> The teacher comes into the room. There is a lull in the hubbub, a transitional phase of settling down. Then: 'Right. Quiet please. Sit down.' The tumult and the shouting dies. The scene is set. The classroom is constituted as a setting and the lesson starts. (p. 83)

The scene is familiar. Teachers and learners alike know the script and act accordingly. What follows will be a lesson in which knowledge will be transferred from the mind of the teacher to the mind of the learners. The flow of information is unidirectional, the learners are empty vessels, and the transfer process is complete once the teacher has *sent* all of the information he or she planned to. Although some students can and do acquire L2 knowledge in this manner, many do not, and remain basically unable to engage in interaction in the L2 even after several years of instruction.

I have sought to address this issue by reconfiguring the classroom from an institutional space to one that can be termed a *venue for conversation*. The creation of this conversational venue takes place as follows. After checking attendance and making any necessary announcements, the students initiate speaking with each other, without any direction from me. There is no explicit verbal or gestural signal that the students should start speaking. Nor do I allocate group membership, set speaking topics or time limits, or the like. The learners act in a way that is found in contexts outside the classroom; once they find themselves without pressing tasks to accomplish, and lacking any direction from me as to what to do next, they self-organize into conversation groups, initiate topics, and fill silence with talk. This phase of a lesson is called *student talk time* (STT).

The rationale for this approach must be explained explicitly to learners from the very outset. The teacher must remain committed to the creation of this venue for conversation and seek to negotiate with the students about such issues as use of the L1, the role of the teacher during the ongoing conversations, and so on. Also, the teacher must be realistic about what will happen over the course of study with this approach. Breen and Mann (1997) described a three-phase process in creating student autonomy, moving from an autocratic start with high levels of teacher control to a second stage characterized by relative anarchy and uncertainty of purpose. The end phase is the emergence of a collaborative and negotiated learner community. Breen and Mann cautioned that there is no guarantee that this final phase will be stable: "It is entirely plausible that a class will continue to fluctuate between phases and the maintenance of autonomous learning entails a continual and explicit struggle with such fluctuations" (p. 144).

In unpublished research, I kept a teaching diary in which I recorded the duration and nature of this STT phase of a lesson over the course of an academic year. The class consisted of 18 second-year university English major students meeting three times a week in a mandatory English Communication class. In reviewing the diary entries, I found that the length of time that students could sustain conversation in English steadily increased over the year. Initially students conversed for approximately 5 minutes, before falling silent or lapsing into L1. But by the end of the academic year it was not uncommon for conversations to last for 40 or 50 minutes and be conducted almost entirely in English. The analysis of data from the teaching diary also revealed that there were spikes in conversation duration coinciding with non-normal lessons, that is, lessons held on national holidays or on Saturdays or such. This suggests that if circumstances allowed the lesson to be categorized by learners as in some way non-normal, then the institutional concerns were overridden to some extent, and learners could orient to noninstitutional ways of communicating with greater ease.

The occurrence is initially self-conscious, brief, episodic, and carried out in accordance with the teacher's agenda. But by habituation and repetition it gradually takes on an unconscious, internally generated nature, allowing the students to orient themselves to the role of interactant rather than reactant. This activity is perceived as much a part of the lesson as any grammar explication or lexical work, but this perception recedes during the unfolding of the conversations. The students who took part in these STT lessons also gave very positive feedback, specifically on the STT phase of lessons, in institutionally administered surveys.

Institutional Speaking and Conversation

I maintain that the institutional orientation that is talked into being in traditional L2 classrooms (by teachers and learners) leads to a kind of talk that is different in form and intent from normal, noninstitutional talk. However, I argue that the institutional nature of the L2 classroom is not monolithic but can be diminished, and that learners can gradually reorient themselves to more social and interactive ways of speaking. In the initial stages it will inevitably be a self-conscious exercise, but habituation can lead to students being able to do in the L2 what they do naturally and continually in their L1, namely, fill silence with talk, accomplishing a variety of phatic, interactional goals.

However, the STT phase of the lessons is not a stand-alone period, unconnected to any kind of language learning episodes in other phases of a lesson. The students need to be helped to develop interactional skills that are appropriate to the L2. In order for this to take place it is necessary to look at what kind of speaking students engage in when they are oriented to an institutional identity, to assess what kind of speaking is going on and how this may be at variance with norms of spoken interaction. The next section examines some concrete examples of student speaking which, in my view, are typical of Japanese students' speaking when oriented to an institutional rather than social, interactive role.

Short Turns

Although Cook (1989, p. 51) asserted that short turns are a defining characteristic of conversation, and Murphey (1994) used the term *mentions* to refer to very brief responses made during a conversation, it is also true that a participant who contributes only minimalistic utterances to a conversation and makes no attempt to expand will be regarded as somehow disengaged from the interaction. Schegloff (2007) discussed the ways that interactants orient towards one another in conversation. In topic proffering sequences "the key issue is whether the recipient displays a stance which *en*courages or *dis*courages [emphasis in original] the proffered topic" (p. 175). Schegloff went on to note that responders may orient away from the proffered topic by constructing minimal turns, that is, turns constructed of a single turn construction unit (TCU) or a series of repetitive or redundant TCUs. Short turns are acceptable if the discourse is conceived in turns of three-part classroom discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), but have a very different meaning in talk in interaction; namely, they show repeated rejection of topic proffers by other participants. Consider the following transcript of student talk. The data is derived from videotaped recordings of students speaking during the early weeks of an elective English class.

Extract 1

(Parentheses indicate short pauses, question marks indicate rising intonation.)

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A: What (.) did (.) you do(.) weekend this weekend
    (.) last weekend weekend?
B: Part time job
A: Oh eh what whato what job?
B: Konbini (.)ence store
A: Oh (.)where? where?
B: Near my home
A: My home? my(.) near
B: Near
A: Near eh? Seven Eleven?
B: No circle K
A: Circle K Circle Circle (.) ah ah ah
```

Across the five turns speaker B gives minimal TCU responses to speaker A's topic proffering questions. It seems reasonable to infer that speaker B is orienting to an institutional (IRF) manner of discourse and is probably unaware that, for interactional purposes, the signal being sent is one of repeated topic rejection, with no attempt to proffer any counter topic. It seems reasonable to say that there comes a point outside the classroom where this may be interpreted as a signal of disinterest and disengagement from the interaction as a whole.

Smallwords

Hasselgreen (2004) highlighted the importance of *smallwords* in contributing to spoken fluency. These smallwords are defined as:

> Small words and phrases, occurring with high frequency in the spoken language, that help to keep our speech flowing, yet do not contribute essentially to the message itself. (p. 162)

Typical examples of these words in English are *well*, *you know*, and *I mean*. In the videos of student speaking, these words were almost entirely absent. In addition to the lack of these words, in many cases I observed that learners use Japanese equivalents during their English spoken interaction, such as *etoh*, and *ano*. Although the propositional content of the speaking way be well formed in English, use of Japanese discourse markers perhaps reveals that the learner is not fully oriented to English speaking as an interactive system, and may be primarily orientated towards institutional goals of display and accuracy, with scant attention paid to turn design or interactional concerns.

Backchannels and Aizuchi

During any conversation, the listeners do not typically sit silently waiting for the current speaker to finish. Rather, they contribute with words and short expressions that show understanding, agreement, interest, and so on. Such utterances are commonly referred to as *backchanneling* (see Yngve, 1970) or sometimes receipt tokens. In Japanese they are called *aizuchi*. There exists an extensive literature on aizuchi, (see, e.g., LoCastro, 1987; Hayashi & Yoon, 2009.) In the video data I found that backchanneling in English was largely absent, and that several learners resorted to Japanese utterances, such as *ah, un, hai*, and *so*, typically with sharply raised intonation. The habitual resort to Japanese style listener contributions may stem from a lack of knowledge of English backchanneling systems. But it also reveals that the learners may not be fully oriented to the co-constructed nature of spoken interaction. In a sense, it could be said that even though the speaker is speaking in English, their partner is listening in Japanese. It is interesting to note that even after explicit teaching, many students still habitually resort to aizuchi-style listener contributions, or mix English and Japanese styles.

Minimized turn constructions, omission of English small-words and inclusion of Japanese equivalents, failure to backchannel, or resort to aizuchi are some of the areas which can be addressed in helping students to pass the SLA version of the Turing test. Other areas for attention include repetition as a receipt token (Greer, Bussinguer, Butterfield, & Mischinger, 2006), topic proffering sequences (Schegloff, 2007), and repair strategies (Fox, Hayashi, & Jasperson, 1996). Although some sort of basic lexical and grammatical knowledge must be in place before conversation takes place, it is not necessarily the case that learners with a wide vocabulary and grammatical knowledge of the L2 will be able to orient themselves to the role of equal participant in unfolding spoken interaction in the L2. As Brouwer and Wagner (2004) suggested, "Learning a second language, then, may be described in terms of increasing interactional complexity in language encounters rather than as the acquisition of formal elements" (p. 44).

Development of Interactional Skills: Some Results

The following data is taken from videotaped sessions of students in another class where I introduced STT. The class consisted of 12 second- and third-year non-English major university students, meeting twice a week in an elective course. The videos are of pairs or trios of students engaging in unrehearsed conversation in the classroom during the STT phase of a lesson. The videos were recorded in April and the following January. The conversations were 5-minute segments of ongoing conversations. I transcribed the videos and then analyzed the transcriptions by both close reading and processing with the Compleat Lexical Tutor web-based concordance software (Cobb, 2010). The students were free to self-select speaking partners so the group membership was not the same in April and in January. The results below illustrate some of the changes that take place when learners are encouraged to orient themselves to interactional classroom activities and identities and given explicit instruction in interactional language norms.

Volume of Talk

The total words spoken by all participants in each 5-minute segment of ongoing conversation were counted and are shown in Table 1. The transcriptions of the conversations were stripped of notations and the bare transcripts were fed into the Compleat Lexical Tutor User Text Concordancer (Cobb, 2010) to obtain total word counts. The results are shown in ascending order. The results clearly show that the participants spoke more during the January conversations (a range of 404 to 555 words) compared with the April conversations (a range of 197 to 398 words.)

Volume of Talk per Speaker

The results show that all individual participants spoke more in the January conversations. The weaker students especially spoke much more in the January conversations (see Table 2). The imbalance between speakers' contributions seemed to be somewhat redressed.

Type Count

The number of different words used by each participant, that is, the active vocabulary of the participants, was also counted (see Table 3). The totals are not lemmatized, that is, the different forms of a word are not grouped together under one word type, Consequently, several occurrences of the word *go* count as one type and several occurrences of the word *went* count as another type. Again, the results show that the weaker speakers increased their vocabulary-in-use range substantially (e.g., Speaker 1 increased from 19 to 74 types). However the stronger speakers showed less increase, while two speakers (S10 and S12) showed a slight decrease. Again, the overall range was somewhat narrowed from 19 to 123 types per students in the April conversations to 74 to 118 types in the January conversations.

Turn Length

An average of the five longest turns (in words) of each participant was calculated (see Table 4). The longest five turns were selected so as to avoid interference from a large number of back-

Table 1. Word Count per Group in 5-Minute Segment of One Conversation

Session	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group E	Group F	Average
April	197	246	261	289	301	398	282
January	404	415	450	521	550	555	483

Note. Student groups were not the same in April and in January.

Table 2. Word Count per Speaker in 5-Minute Segment of One Conversation

Session	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12
April	24	54	69	87	101	108	120	123	169	174	223	250
January	170	189	267	229	169	234	251	288	270	186	381	261

channel-type turns comprising just one or two words. The turns as counted here have an element of subjectivity about them in that I decided on a case-by-case basis whether a turn seemed to be complete as oriented to by the speaker, hesitations, pauses, interruptions, and backchannel insertions notwithstanding. However, it was clear that all speakers were capable of creating longer turns. Once again, the weaker students made the most change and the imbalances between the stronger and weaker students was somewhat redressed, with the April conversations showing a range from 3.8 to 20 words and the January conversations showing a range of 11.8 to 32.6 words as an average of the longest five turns. The speakers seemed to be conducting more balanced conversations in terms of the turn lengths of the participants in relation to each other.

Smallwords

One feature of the April conversations was the almost complete lack of usage of common smallwords. As Table 5 shows, in the January conversations there was a great deal more use of some of the more common smallwords. What the table cannot show is the prosodic features of these usages. The smallwords were uttered as single chunks, slightly faster and slightly quieter than the surrounding discourse, as is typical of native speaker usage.

Table 5. Use of Smallwords by All Speakers in 5-Minute Segment of One Conversation

Session	*Well*	*You know*	*I mean*	*Actually*
April	1	1	0	0
January	22	11	21	9

Other features

Other results were highly individualized and not readily presentable in table form. One student made extensive use of the Japanese marker *etoh* in the April conversation (12 occurrences)

Table 3. Type Count per Speaker in 5-Minute Segment of One Conversation

Session	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12
April	19	32	43	52	64	43	71	67	103	89	104	123
January	74	85	95	80	77	103	100	99	111	84	107	118

Note. Total different words used. Results are not lemmatized.

Table 4. Turn Length per Speaker

Session	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12
April	3.8	7.8	9.6	9.2	6.0	11.2	10.6	13.0	15.4	8.6	20.0	15.6
January	16.4	23.4	21.2	17.4	11.8	21.6	32.4	23.2	38.4	15.6	25.5	32.6

Note. Counts represent the average of the five longest utterances by each speaker.

but completely avoided using it in the post conversation. Another student contributed a large number of Japanese style aizuchi (prolonged or sharply rising *ah*, *un*, or *oh*) in the April conversation, but in the January conversation used entirely recognizable English backchannel devices (*I see, yeah, uh-huh)*. One group had a complete multiturn reversion to Japanese in the April conversation, but apart from a hasty, quiet, and rapidly self-corrected *jya*, completely avoided Japanese language utterances in the January conversation.

Conclusion

From the data it can be seen that definite change occurred in the students spoken output. A note of caution must be introduced in looking at the results of transcribed materials. Not every word was audible , and the speakers engaged in many hesitations and restarts, which hampered the transcription process, leading to a certain fuzziness of the data. Other transcribers may come up with slightly different data. Nonetheless, the results do seem to show that the students spoke more and produced longer turns, used a wider vocabulary, paused less, used less Japanese, used smallwords more, backchanneled in a largely English manner, and largely avoided IRF style sequences in their speaking. It is suggested here that all of these factors help to create an impression of fluency and the feeling that the students were talking into being an interactional identity as opposed to adopting an institutional identity. That is, they succeeded in creating an impression that they were using the English and interactional resources available to them to engage in and manage interaction as it unfolds in real time, rather than just displaying memorized forms in well-rehearsed settings in order to fulfill the demands of the teacher.

Bio Data

John Campbell-Larsen received his masters in TESOL from the University of Birmingham. He is currently teaching at Momoyama Gakuin University in Osaka, Japan. His research interests include conversation analysis, SLA teaching methodology, and cross-cultural communication.

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Language Learner Autonomy, Motivation, and Proximal Goal Completion

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The motivation and autonomy interface has generated considerable interest over the past two decades, yet much remains unclear with regard to the nature of the relationship between these two variables. In the context of a 15-week elective training course on learner autonomy, this study examined the ongoing reflections of Japanese university learners of English on their progress toward self-selected short-term learning goals. Despite evidence elsewhere of a positive effect of proximal goals on intrinsic interest and learner self-motivation (e.g., Bandura & Schunk, 1981), the findings here showed an inconsistent relationship between demonstration of learner autonomy and successful goal completion. Through a qualitative analysis of student narratives from the perspective of Locke and Latham's (1990) Goal-Setting Theory, I attempt to explain this discrepancy. Potential implications for fostering greater learner autonomy in language learning are also discussed.

モチベーションと自律の結びつきは過去20年で相当の興味を生み出したが、それら二つの変動的要素の関係の本質は明確でないままである。本研究では、自律学習についての15週間の選択科目を通して、日本の英語学習者である大学生の、自身で定めた短期学習目標達成への進捗の継続的省察を調べた。いたるところで見られる短期目標の内発的興味と学習者自己動機付けへの好ましい効果の証（例：Bandura and Schunk, 1981）とは裏腹に、調査結果は自律学習行動を示すことと目標達成の関係には一貫性がないことを示した。Locke and Latham（1990）のGoal-Setting Theoryの観点に基づいて行った、学生の談話の定性分析を通して、この論文では先の矛盾への説明を試みる。一層の学習者自律促進への潜在的影響についても考察する。

As the number of study hours required to attain the necessary proficiency to effectively use a second language (L2) for academic and professional purposes typically exceeds what common language programs can provide (Lyddon, 2011), most learners will need to possess considerable autonomy if they truly hope to be successful in their language studies. In other words, they must have "the *capacity* to take control of [their] own learning" (Benson, 2011, p. 58, emphasis added), including determining objectives, defining scope and sequence, selecting methods and techniques, setting the location and schedule, and evaluating outcomes (Holec, 1981). Learner autonomy itself, however, is a necessary but insufficient condition, for possession of such a capacity is of little value without the concomitant motivation to actualize it. Moreover, this motivation, too, must eventually come under the umbrella of learner self-regulation, for as Ushioda (2008) duly noted, learners who rely on teachers to motivate them are unlikely to sustain their efforts outside of class for as long as is necessary to develop their communicative proficiency. Consequently, the motivation and autonomy interface has been a subject of interest for at least the past 25 years (see Ushioda, 1996). Yet much is still unknown with regard to the relationship between these two complex variables.

In a 15-week elective course on learner autonomy, I previously investigated the effects of training on the self-motivational strategy use of 24 Japanese undergraduate preintermediate level users of English (see Lyddon, 2012). In that study, the learners each set a personal short-term goal and submitted a progress log, self-motivational strategy checklist, and reflective self-evaluation at five intervals over an 8-week period before preparing a final graded essay on how they had become more autonomous throughout the course of the semester. Statistical comparisons of the checklist data and final essay scores, however, showed no quantitative or categorical differences between more and less highly autonomous learners in their actual self-motivational strategy employment. Moreover, although the pursuit of proximal goals has elsewhere been shown to promote intrinsic interest and learner self-motivation (Bandura & Schunk, 1981), a qualitative follow-up examination of the elective course study data revealed an inconsistent relationship between learner autonomy and successful short-term goal completion. Taking the perspective of Goal-Setting Theory (Locke, 1996; Locke & Latham, 1990), in this paper I will attempt to explain this apparent contradiction and then suggest pedagogical implications for fostering greater autonomy in language learning.

Working Definitions of Autonomy and Motivation

Neither of them denoting a discrete observable attribute, both autonomy and motivation are notoriously difficult to define and operationalize. In fact, the two often appear to overlap in numerous ways, perhaps both constructs sharing a set of common components or even one subsuming the other. Nevertheless, it is essential to somehow differentiate them in order to examine and discuss them separately. Thus, in the context of this study, an autonomous learner is characterized as one who *can* make informed choices on the basis of awareness and control of relevant learning processes, whereas a motivated learner actually *does* engage in a particular action and expend persistent effort on it (see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 4, on the latter). Moreover, motivation itself is seen here as exclusively neither cognitive nor affective, but situational and variable.

Study Procedure

As mentioned above, the data were collected over the 15-week period of a one-semester elective course on learner autonomy. Taking a psychological perspective on the nature of context as one of English as a foreign language in Japan and agency as a mental and emotional characteristic of the individual learner (see Oxford, 2003), the course in question followed the same basic format as that described in Lyddon (2012), namely a three-phase cycle of raising awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles, including explicit instruction with respect to motivation, learner strategies, community building, and self-monitoring, as suggested by Scharle and Szabó (2000). Approximately midway through the course, the students each set a personal short-term learning goal for the remaining 8 weeks. Thereafter, the learners were assigned a weekly learning log documenting their progress toward their chosen goal. They were also required each week to submit a narrative self-evaluation, including responses to the following common set of questions:

- What was your goal last week?
- How did you try to accomplish it?
- How well did you succeed?

- Did you have any problems? If so, how did you handle them?
- Will you do anything differently next week? If so, what?

These assignments were collected five times over the remainder of the semester.

As part of their final exam, the learners all wrote an essay explaining how they had become more autonomous in their language learning over the course of the semester. As those seeking teacher approval may simply project autonomous behavior (Breen & Mann, 1997), the learners were instructed not only to describe any changes in their awareness, attitudes, and actions but also to explain them specifically in terms of their understanding of the concept of autonomy as the basis for their evaluation.

After their submission, the essays were sorted into three broad categories, roughly representing good, fair, and poor demonstration of autonomy, and then ranked within them. Unfortunately, no other qualified rater was available to corroborate these rankings, so as course instructor I was also the sole evaluator. However, I did re-sort the papers on a separate day and refine my criteria as necessary to ensure the reliability of the assigned grades.

Only 24 of the 39 learners enrolled in the course submitted all the requisite assignments for potential inclusion in this study. By chance, the number whose final essays remained in each category was exactly 8. However, a two-sided chi square test of independence comparing the distribution of the final essay scores of those who were included and those who were not was nonsignificant at the .05 alpha level: $\chi^2(2, N = 39) = .248$, $p = .88$. Thus, learner autonomy as defined here did not appear to be a determining factor in whether students completed all their assignments. To magnify the differences between learners and thus facilitate their comparison, the data from the middle category were then excluded, leaving only those of the eight most and least autonomous learners to be used in the analysis. All learner names presented here are pseudonyms.

The Disconnect Between Proximal Goal Completion and Learner Autonomy

As Table 1, illustrates, the learning goals that were chosen most often pertained to vocabulary, grammar, or reading. While most learners did not explicitly state their understanding of what it would mean for them to "learn" new words, their learning logs implied that it entailed providing correct responses to review exercises in the commercial materials that were almost exclusively used. In any case, neither the magnitude of the goal nor its ultimate completion status bore an obvious relationship to learner autonomy level. For instance, Emi, one of the least autonomous learners, claimed to have successfully learned 864 words, whereas Shohei, one of the most autonomous, failed on his goal of learning 500. Moreover, only one of the most highly autonomous learners, Takahiro, was fully successful in attaining his goal while two of the least autonomous learners, Emi and Hana, achieved theirs. To give a better understanding of this discrepancy, I would now like to highlight some clues in the narrative data, beginning with a look at the final essays and why learners were classified as exhibiting either high or low autonomy and then continuing with the reflective self-evaluations and learner accounts of their weekly goal progress. For reasons of space restrictions, I will focus here on four of the most relevant cases, namely those of Daisuke, Shohei, Emi, and Hana, the two most autonomous learners who did not reach any of their stated goals and the first and last among the least autonomous who did.

Table 1. Proximal Goal Completion by Learner

Autonomy level	Learner	**Short-term goal(s)**	**Completion status**
High	Takashi	Learn 500 words	O
		Learn 10 grammar patterns	O
	Sakura	Learn 600 words	O
		Review grammar	X
	Ryoichi	Listen to NHK English program	O
		Study accompanying text	O
	Daisuke	Read 135 pp. of algebra book	X
		Be able to explain material	X
	Ryota	Finish TOEIC book	O
	Toshihiro	Master "*eigo-mimi*"	O
		Finish "listening-plaza"	O
	Ryu	Read 35 English articles	O
	Shohei	Learn 500 words	X
Low	Emi	Learn 864 words	O
	Kazuhiro	Read 24 books	X
	Koichi	Read 50 articles	O
	Risa	Learn 500 words	X
	Tatsuya	Read 40 news articles	O
	Ryunosuke	Read 45-page screenplay	O
		Talk to native speakers	X
	Yusuke	Study 560 spoken English sentences	O
	Hana	Read 3 comic strips per week	O

Note. O = successful; X = unsuccessful

Case #1: Daisuke

The first example of a more highly autonomous learner who did not realize his short-term learning goal is Daisuke, who demonstrated his autonomy in his final essay as follows:

> In order to achieve the goals of the week, I . . . *create a reserve fund 1 day per week*. Because, in such unexpected business, you may not end what you have planned. . . . By creating a reserve fund, rather than extend it one week ahead of target, it is possible to achieve the first goal.

By creating "a reserve fund 1 day per week," he was referring to building a cushion into his learning plan, not overcommitting himself, to accommodate contingencies. In practice, however, he did not implement this strategy. In his reflective self-evaluation at interval 1, for instance, he commented on how not studying often or long enough resulted in incomplete reading comprehension. In fact, he spent a total of 55 minutes on task that week between two study sessions. In short, though he indicated awareness and implied control over his learning processes, he chose not to act on them.

Although he did not modify his behavior the following week, he offered a glimpse into his true motivation at interval 2: "In [less than 2 weeks], employment candidate screening test is a public school teacher in [X] Prefecture. So, for the week before last and have the time." He was preparing for an examination for a position as a public school math teacher. While the latter half of his statement is not entirely clear and he could not be reached for later clarification, his learner logs seemed to indicate that he was announcing a planned reduction in his efforts in order to dedicate more time to his employment exam. At interval 3, which comprised a 2-week period, he worked on his short-term goal only three times for an average of 20 minutes each. In his narrative, he commented, "I was too much time may be out. . . . Until now I was taking the time to study the recruitment test."

At interval 4, he more than doubled his previous efforts with five study sessions for a total of 135 minutes in a single week. However, in his reflection he noted, "One problem is that not enough time to reach the goal before. So I change the goal and want to achieve in the week before. This week, I will read . . . from 66 page to 80 page." In other words, he realized that he would need to dedicate more time to his goal if he truly hoped to achieve it.

The final interval comprised 3 weeks, spanning a school holiday period, during which time he spent an average of 75 minutes over one or two sessions per week, leaving him well short of his originally stated goal. Once again, however, he offered an insight into his behavior with the following comment: "During the fallow period, there was the part time job. So I studied with the spare time." In other words, his part-time job was his greater priority.

One last noteworthy remark in Daisuke's final essay was his assertion, "I needed to fool the brain that I needed information." Here he was describing a satiation control strategy by which he might trick himself into believing he was studying for a higher purpose. As we have seen, however, it seems not to have been worth the effort in this case.

Case #2: Shohei

Similar to Daisuke, Shohei had more pressing demands on his time, and he responded accordingly, though he expressed greater conflict and frustration at the choices he felt compelled to make. In his final essay, he wrote:

> I failed my plan. But, that doesn't means I don't become a more autonomous learner. . . . *I couldn't continue well every day because what I can't predict occurred consecutively*. Though I tried to recover my plan, I couldn't, so *I remade my plan*. After this term, I think *I need a more flexible plan*. . . . Honestly, *I felt stress about 20 words almost everyday*. That is collapsed when I'm pushed into a bad metal state. In fact, my [new] plan is broken up. It is clear that *I can't control myself and my motivation when I'm so tired. I had to decide the constant time to get it over*. If the time come, I changed my motivation and just do it without pushing myself.

Thus, he distinguished action from ability. He explained that he knew what he needed to do, and he did even make an important attempt at self-adjustment. However, he was overwhelmed by matters of a much more serious nature and, thus, understandably devoted his time to his greater priorities.

Shohei's development as a more autonomous language learner is further illustrated in the evolution of his self-reflections. For instance, at interval 1, his stated goal was to "become a person who can communicate each other in English," which he changed at interval 3 to "extend my vocabulary to understand English well at least 500 words" so as to make the outcome more concrete. However, he also switched at this point from an individualized program of reading self-selected science news articles to a more generic one of studying from commercial TOEFL and GRE preparation materials. At interval 4, he revealed a source of divided attention:

> This week [my] plan is broken because I have to go to Iwate as a volunteer. I have to take my time for the preparation. If I had only this task, that would be no problem. I have other one, investigation that how medical center became after earthquake. I will take my card to the volunteer, but I don't think to memorize words such places. So, maybe 500 words is impossible for me. My plan has to be improve again.

With interval 5 encompassing the O-bon (summer) holiday, it is unsurprising that his prediction of failure would indeed come true.

Case #3: Emi

At first glance, Emi would seem to have developed a similar degree of autonomy. In her final essay, she indicated the use of a variety of self-motivation strategies. However, the existence of her goal itself might have been the strongest motivator in her case:

> During this plan, I asked my friend to cheer me and *think positive* and *other many thing do* and *practice every day* for complete my plan. . . . I studying every day at a good rate. But [after the penultimate class] I notice my dairy studying plan has wrong. . . . Fortunately, [weeks 6 and 7] we have holiday, so *I decided to study double number of English word at one day*. For this change plan, I could complete my goal [by the last day of class].

Late in the semester, she realized that her plan had been miscalculated, so she doubled her efforts toward the end rather than come up even a few words short. She remarked that successfully completing her plan helped her to build confidence, but she did not make clear that she was capable of success without instructor support, especially since she studied every single day of the term. In her self-reflection at interval 1, for example, she wrote:

> My own goal is master English words on "Kikutan Score800" and get TOEIC Score 800 next year test. . . . I have no problem in now, but if I forgot my words book or plan to use all day I have. That time, I study that day's words previous day or next day and no late for plan as well as possible.

Her plan was essentially to pour all her faith into a single book and to study it 7 days a week for the rest of the semester.

At interval 2, she voluntarily included a 9-week study plan with a 6-day per week schedule, similar to one she had been given as a model, but she never updated it at any point in the semester, despite her actual efforts and progress. Moreover, she made adjustments to her weekly plans in arguably maladapted ways:

> My last weeks goal was studying every day as well as same time. But . . . I didn't come home every day same time, so I can't do well. I think again, I will not able to this goal for my schejule for class, so I made new goal. New goal is more 10 min. study time longer.

In other words, rather than build flexibility into her schedule, she decided to simply increase her daily study time hereafter by 10 minutes to compensate for unexpected delays over the past week.

At interval 3, Emi indicated that she employed self-encouragement as well as benefited from encouragement from her friends:

> Last two weeks, often I wanted to didn't study . . . but I cheer up me and did this weeks goal. . . . I want to do every day this study to last goal. To study every day in my life is very good thing I think. I want to do this for last goal reary. And last two weeks, I want to thank you to my friends. Ther's cheer was very good my power to study.

To study every day of her life, however, while perhaps a laudable goal, is a practically unrealistic one as well. Moreover, she seemed to be increasingly consumed by her desire to meet her goal for its own sake even as she experimented with a number of additional new self-motivational strategies, such as those mentioned in this excerpt from her self-reflection at interval 4:

> This week, I could my own goal. . . . I get bored with study everyday same time very easily but I did this study so I in building my self-confidence. And thanks to my friends

> to cheer me sometime. More I set my own enjoy playing or enjoying something to me finished day study. This is my small fun at every study. By next week, we in summer vacation, I want to do this study everyday same time as same as this week. But if I have some more time, I tried study a little more and add time and words.

Finally, her failure to review her weekly study plan found its effect as she noticed only in the last data collection interval that she had miscalculated the length of the term:

> This two weeks, first I notice my Daily English words Study Plan was wrong. . . . Then I decided to do at 1 day, a number of 2 days words studying in this two weeks. So I completed my goal. And I add my study time in this 2 weeks.
>
> Honestry, I think I can't did my goal. But I did this plan all. . . . I want to do study this book next week and next week until next TOEIC examination.

In summary, Emi successfully completed the short-term goal she had set for herself, but as she had finished the book, it appeared she woiuld now simply review the material in it for the weeks to come until the next TOEIC administration. Moreover, she gave no indication that she had attempted or even planned to attempt any evaluation of the fruitfulness of her efforts such as by taking a sample TOEIC and comparing the results with her previous ones.

Case #4: Hana

Finally, we come to the case of Hana, whose eventual stated goal was simply to read three *Peanuts* cartoons online every week. In her final essay, she described the development of her autonomy as follows:

> On the site, *there were some day the "today story" not exist*. In this case, *I read passed stories*. . . . Comics have pictures so it is easy to understand the meaning of saying and feeling of character. *I could continue to reading because of the picture is cute, and the story is fun. But I could not understand the fun point of the story sometimes*. Such case, I strived for finding fun point in my way. *When I have no time to read it, I did other day instead of it*.
>
> As a result . . . I could achieved my goal. I think I acquired ability to understand meaning of feeling of character. And I could feel the difference of fun point between country or culture. Especially, I could not understand the fun point, I thought that it is impossible to construe as author want to express reader intrinsically. But if the same citizen, it may different to each one's own. So, definitely I sought to think it is important to find myself, interesting point, boring point etc. . . . I could also know common expression or special expression. But the number of vocabulary were increase, but no so much. Because wards in comic are not so difficult and used easy English to read anybody.
>
> From the result, I think it is better to read books or newspapers than reading comics. Because if newspaper, I can read everyday because without no published. I would like to read them for the future.

Hana counted on a new strip being posted every day, but had a plan (to read old strips) when there wasn't one. She also had a make-up plan to accommodate contingencies, but her overall goal was relatively unambitious. Her chosen materials were attractive, but she did not always understand them. She seemed to rationalize that no one ever really knows what's in another person's head. She commented that the words were easy, so she didn't really expand her vocabulary. She remarked that newspapers would have been more useful, but she stayed with her original plan.

In her self-reflection at interval 1, her goal was simply "to improve the reading," which she modified at interval 2 to the more quantifiable "At least, read the three stories every week. (18 stories for this term.)" The narratives of her self-evaluations, however, betray a serious misunderstanding of the purpose of the assignment, which she seemed to think was to summarize her reading. At interval 1, for example, she wrote, "On Monday, I read the 'today's peanuts'. The story is that a boy write a letter to snoopy stay in the hospital. He wrote the soon recovery. And, he feels jealous to the nurses." After one-on-one teacher-student conferencing, her entry at interval 3 was the marginal improvement "This story's fun point is controlling his feeling." At interval 5, she even wrote, "In this week, I'm not sure the correctly understand the meaning of story." In other words, she completed the assignment presumably because she knew she was required to do something for course credit, but she did not seem compelled to seek help from either any of her peers or her teacher.

Summary and Discussion

The four cases presented above contrast two more highly autonomous learners who did not succeed in completing their short-term learning goals and two less highly autonomous ones who did. In demonstrating their autonomy, all four learners expressed the ability to plan and adapt their behavior and showed an awareness of self-regulatory strategies. However, the more autonomous learners chose to abandon their stated goals, whereas the less autonomous ones followed through on theirs for the sake of completion. Although these findings seem to contradict Bandura and Schunk's (1981) conclusions about the positive effects of proximal goals on intrinsic interest and self-motivation, it must be noted that the choice of learner activities in the Bandura and Schunk study was restricted by the teacher and limited to time spent within the classroom, whereas the learning goals in the cases of the learners in the current study generally required substantial time commitment outside of class as well.

From the perspective of Goal-Setting Theory (Locke, 1996; Locke & Latham, 1990), for optimal commitment and performance, goals need to be specific, difficult but attainable, and important. While all the stated goals in these four cases were specific in the sense that they were at least to some degree quantifiable, those of the more autonomous learners may have been too difficult to attain because they were not truly important. In fact, the more autonomous learners may have reached their goals had they had sufficient time to devote to them in class, but faced with bigger life concerns of job hunting and disaster relief volunteer work, they chose to pursue more urgent priorities rather than go through the motions of completing a self-imposed assignment of arguably very little benefit.

The ultimate personal value of the less autonomous learners' short-term goals is likewise questionable, yet these learners demonstrated the necessary commitment to accomplish them in the end. Nevertheless, in one case the student's plan required a level of dedication and effort that would have been unsustainable beyond such a short duration, and in the other it was so relatively undemanding as to necessitate very little, if any, time expenditure outside of class. Ironically, the nominal successes of these two learners betray their relative lack of autonomy, albeit in starkly different ways.

Implications for Fostering Greater Learner Autonomy

While a necessary condition, learner autonomy in itself is insufficient for raising language proficiency levels, for students may demonstrate the ability to set goals, create learning plans, and employ self-motivational and other learning strategies on demand but simply elect not to sustain these efforts on their own. Japanese university students are notoriously busy with a myriad of timely opportunities such as part-time jobs, club activities, and job hunting. As such, we need to help our learners develop their time management skills if we realistically hope for them to incorporate independent out-of-class language study into their already tight schedules. At the same time, however, we must also admit that learning English may simply not be a high enough priority for many students, who might rather devote any extra free time to putting other areas of their lives in order. No matter how explicit, challenging, and attainable the goals we teach them to set, learners are unlikely to expend the requisite effort on them if they lack real importance. Consequently, we must first strive to help learners find the personal value of advancing their English abilities, and whether or not we succeed, we can at least try to raise their awareness of their true priorities and, thus, lay bare the reasons for oftentimes low levels of ultimate proficiency attainment and minimize the stereotypical negative self-talk.

For those persuaded of the value of advanced language proficiency, it is essential that they learn the importance of setting distal goals and of visualizing the future to attain them (Miller & Brickman, 2004). Moreover, these learners need to acquire the ability to articulate their proximal goals within the larger framework of these long-term aspirations. In short, instructors must go beyond modeling the formulation of measurable goals and concrete, detailed learning plans and not only demonstrate the application of self-motivational strategies but help learners to bridge the gap between stages in their learning as well. Unfortunately, such an ambitious charge is unlikely to be accomplished in the course of a single semester and, thus, will probably require longitudinal efforts at the program level.

Conclusion

Independent completion of individual proximal goals requires motivation but does not necessarily imply greater autonomy, whereas both of these attributes are essential to the eventual attainment of advanced language proficiency. As such, learners need to understand the personal value of their language study to ensure that the learning goals they set are not only specific, challenging, and attainable, but, above all, important. They also need to recognize their true priorities and possess the time management skills necessary to attend to them accordingly. Finally, they need to be able to envision the role of English in their future, to set distal goals to that end, and to situate and sequence their short-term learning goals along this extended timeline.

Bio Data

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Language Learning Strategies Use in University and Beyond

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Language learners who engage actively in their selection of language learning strategies (LLSs) better manage and evaluate their learning processes. In this paper, we report on a 14-week study investigating the influence of strategy training on 51 students in 5 settings and across 2 groups, students at 3 Japanese universities and learners at 2 private language schools. The study involved repeated exposure to the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1990), having learners select, practice, and evaluate strategies from the SILL and regularly record their reflections on strategies. Pre- and poststudy SILL scores, student feedback in interviews, and the students' reflections were analyzed across the various contexts. The findings suggest that explicit training on LLS was the single most important factor in improving the students' strategy use, but such training must consider factors of resistance to the concept of strategy training with diverse sets of learners in different environments.

学習方法を積極的に自分自身で選択している外国語学習者は、学習の過程を、よりよく調整し正確な評価を下している。本論は、14週間にわたる効果的な学習方法の指導について考察した報告である。指導は、二種類の五つの教育機関、日本の三大学と二個人経営による英語学校において、51人の学習者を対象に行われた。考察は、学習者がSILL (Oxford, 1990) から学習方法を選択し、実行し、その結果を評価する実践を二回行った結果に基づいている。考察は、SILLを実行する前の点数とSILLを二回行った後の点数を比較し、さらに面談で話された学習者の感想や学習方法に対する観察を検討するなど多面的に分析している。結果、学習者とその環境によっては学習方法を指導する教育に抵抗感を抱く要因があり、配慮する必要もあるが、外国語教育において、学習方法に焦点をあて、適切な学習方法を明らかにしていく教育は、学習者が学習方法を使いこなせるようになる極めて有効であると言える。

Attempts by educators and researchers to determine the reasons why some learners learn faster than others are by no means a new development. The focus on what kind of methods successful learners employ has been ongoing since at least the 1960s, with Houle's (1961) efforts to highlight the different values and purposes learners place on their learning. Houle developed three classifications of learners including goal-oriented learners who have a specific goal for their study, activity-oriented learners who participate for social purposes, and learning-oriented learners who perceive learning to be an end in itself. Hiemstra (1994) noted that it was the last category of learners that most closely resembled the self-directed learner identified in later research. Specific to language learning, Carton (1966) noted that language students vary in their ability to make rational choices regarding their learning. Early research into "the good language learner" (Stern, 1975, p. 304) focused on the notion that the study strategies of successful language learners should be identified and used to help less effective learners to improve.

Wesche (1975) hypothesized that it was the ability to orchestrate a number of strategies, rather than individual strategy use, that best facilitated language learning, a theory later supported by Wenden (1998) who suggested that effective strategy use depended on various factors including the task purpose, task difficulty, learning style, and background knowledge.

Increased use of language learning strategies (LLSs) does not necessarily lead to more effective learning. Vann and Abraham's (1990) study of less successful learners reported that although the students were actively employing a number of strategies, they lacked the metacognitive awareness to assess which strategies were most appropriate for a given task. Further evidence highlighting the importance of appropriate strategy selection was provided by Yamamori, Isoda, Hiromori, and Oxford (2003) who argued that efforts to identify universally good strategies were futile, as successful learners are characterized not by the repeated use of individual strategies, but by their ability to select the various strategies which will be most effective in different instances of language learning. This supports Oxford and Ehrman's (1995) assertion that "successful language learners use an array of strategies, matching those strategies to their learning style and personality and to the demands of the task" (p. 362). Indeed, Dörnyei (2005) went so far as to suggest that it is the conscious implementation of strategies, more than the strategies themselves, which facilitates learning. Given such statements regarding language strategy instruction, it was our belief that exposing our students to a variety of LLSs and encouraging them to experiment and reflect on the strategies would help them to become more informed in the selection of strategies appropriate for them in their respective learning contexts.

This paper outlines the history of LLS research and classification before describing the research methodology employed. Analysis of the findings consists of examination of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Oxford, 1990, p. 294-296) scores recorded by the students and investigation of the students' impression of the research as described in interviews and in language learning diaries. The paper reports on both the positive and negative elements of the study and concludes with advice for other researchers considering implementing similar programs.

Strategy Definition and Classification

Various attempts have been made to identify and classify LLSs. Rubin (1975) offered an early classification of strategies, with six categories affecting language acquisition both directly and indirectly. Brown and Palinscar (1982) categorized their strategies according to their cognitive or metacognitive functions, while O'Malley and Chamot (1990) added a third category of strategies, social / affective strategies.

Oxford (1990) revised earlier taxonomies and produced a detailed list comprising six categories, namely, memory, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. This categorization has become perhaps the most influential and exhaustive of all taxonomies (Rivera-Mills & Plonsky, 2007) due to the SILL, which is a self-report questionnaire for determining the frequency of language learning strategy use. The inventory consists of 50 items divided into categories of remembering, cognition, compensation, metacognition, affection, and social, each soliciting a 5-point Likert-scale response from never to always true. The appropriateness of the SILL in the Japanese learning environment has been questioned by Robson and Midorikawa (2001) who argued that the official Japanese translation of the SILL (Oxford, 1990) has not been subjected to the same reliability tests as the original English version. Furthermore, Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989) acknowledged that the list of strategies is by no means exhaustive and that hundreds of other strategies may exist. Nevertheless, the SILL is commonly used in research and has been validated in a number of different studies (see e.g., Cohen, Weaver, & Li, 1998; Fewell, 2010; Yang, 1990).

LLSs with Asian Students

While studies concluding nationality plays a significant role in strategy use are "not easy to find" (Griffiths, 2004, p. 14), some studies have indicated that Asian learners tend to have less awareness of LLSs and consequently use them less frequently (Griffiths & Parr, 2000; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Griffiths's (2003) report on a comprehensive study of Asian students in a language school in New Zealand revealed that despite high levels of initial enthusiasm regarding a 1-month study skills course focusing on strategy training, the interest of teachers and students alike waned to the extent that, at the end of the class, the course was not reoffered, with teachers commenting on the difficulty of providing motivating material for students, and the students either dropping out or requesting a change of class to one with a more standard language focus. Griffiths's data also indicated a correlation between proficiency level and strategy use, with advanced learners using LLSs significantly more frequently than elementary learners. Reluctance among Asian students to embrace the concept of LLSs may be explained by Schmitt's (1997) analysis that in Japan at least, LLSs are given a peripheral role in formal education.

In other research from Japan, Takeuchi (1993) found Japanese students tended to pay close attention to metacognitive strategy use, and Nakatani (2005) reported that students who received explicit strategy training showed significant improvement in oral proficiency when compared with a control group. Fewell (2010) found that Japanese learners' self-reported strategy use decreased as their proficiency improved, in contrast to Takeuchi who reported a correlation between strategy use and increased proficiency. Fewell's findings may be explained by Cohen's (1998) hypothesis that lower levels of reported strategy use could be the result of strategy use becoming automatic and ceasing to be conscious. The research reviewed above suggests that explicit metacognitive strategy training can lead to higher L2 proficiency, implying that sustained LLS monitoring in the language classroom had the potential to benefit the student participants in the current study.

The Study

This study was carried out for 14 weeks among five teachers implementing LLS training with two types of student groups amid a range of existing school and course-specific programs. The research was conducted with 2nd-year students at Meisei University, 2nd-year students at Komazawa Women's University, 4th-year students at Otsuma Women's University, and adult students at both Flying English School and at I.E.P. School.

The students ranged from pre-intermediate to early advanced English levels.

The primary aim of this study was to raise our students' awareness of LLSs and, through repeated exposure, practice, and reflection with strategies, to facilitate improvement in students' ability to independently plan and manage their own learning processes. We hoped this would help them to make more informed decisions about the appropriate strategies for different learning situations.

Oxford's (1990) inventory has been most frequently researched with university students, but relatively rarely with language school students, the most significant work of the latter being by Griffiths (2003) with Asian students in New Zealand. Thus we were also interested in investigating each group's initial familiarity with LLSs and the extent to which the SILL influenced their motivation. In particular, because the adults in private language schools were studying voluntarily, we expected them to be more motivated, resulting in greater increases in their SILL scores over the course of the study compared to the university student participants who were completing courses to fulfill graduation requirements.

The 14-week study began in April 2012, coinciding with the beginning of the Japanese academic year. The five groups of participants each completed a version of the SILL, in class or in their free time, either the original English-language version or a Japanese translation, based on their personal preference. Each student's results were compiled by the relevant researcher and returned to the student.

Students were then encouraged to revisit the complete inventory of strategies and select a number of strategies, initially limited to between three and five, to practice as regularly as possible over the following 2 weeks. A 2-week time frame was selected as it provided the students with enough time to practice their chosen strategies repeatedly, yet was short enough to allow them to select strategies seven different times over the course of the study. Students were asked to write reflections on their experiences of strategy practice in a language learning diary. To facilitate focused reflection, the students were provided with a list of questions designed to promote meaningful reflection, such as, "How did you feel before and after the practice?" and "Would you recommend the strategy to other learners?"

Having experimented with their chosen strategies for 2 weeks, the students were asked to return to the SILL and select another set of strategies with which they would experiment and reflect upon over the following 2 weeks. This process was repeated for the duration of the 14-week study, by which time the students had been exposed to the SILL seven times, selecting a new set of strategies for practice each time.

Approximately 4 to 8 weeks into the study, the researchers conducted individual feedback sessions to determine the progress each student felt they were making in their strategy use. These sessions were also used to investigate students' diary reflections and encourage more regular strategy practice and reflection. At the end of the study, which generally coincided with the end of the university semester, the researchers conducted another feedback session and collected students' diaries. The majority of the students then completed the SILL survey a second time. Final analysis included comparing the participants' SILL scores from the beginning and end of the study, data from the feedback sessions, and the contents of their language learning diaries.

Findings

This section outlines the general findings from our investigation, starting with evaluation of the changes in SILL scores, then discussing participant feedback, and finally considering the contents of participants' diaries.

SILL Scores

Dealing first with the SILL scores for each group of students in Table 1, two of the three groups of university students showed improvements in their scores for the second administration of the SILL. However, the scores for participants at Otsuma decreased during the course of the study. Results for participants at one of the private language schools were considerably different. Students at Flying English recorded the highest average increase in SILL. However, the data for I.E.P. is incomplete, as due to a variety of administrative and student-related concerns, the second SILL survey could not be satisfactorily administered.

Table 1. Pre- and Poststudy SILL Average Scores

Institution	Prestudy	Poststudy	Difference
Meisei	3.00	3.67	+0.67
Komazawa	3.28	3.72	+0.44
Otsuma	3.08	2.66	-0.42
Flying English	3.14	3.95	+0.81
I.E.P.	3.08	N/A	N/A

Note. At I.E.P., the poststudy survey could not be completed.

At Meisei, all of the 11 participants increased their scores in the second SILL survey, with the highest individual increase being 1.33. Similarly, all 10 participants at Komazawa improved their scores, with increases ranging from 0.3 to 0.7. The scores from Otsuma were notably different however, with eight of the nine students' scores decreasing. It became evident during the compilation of data that the teachers at both Meisei and Komazawa had been able to focus on LLSs regularly and explicitly in the classroom, allowing more time for explanation and demonstration of student selected strategies. However, the teacher at Otsuma had limited classroom time to fully implement the LLS support framework part of the study, as the course was a content-based seminar focusing on Asian-American issues and educational issues, from which students were expected to produce a graduation thesis. This meant that language learning instruction was of secondary importance in the course. Furthermore, the students were beginning their 4th year of university, and consequently were actively engaged in job hunting, which was likely given precedence over their coursework. These in- and out-of-class factors possibly contributed to their reduced participation in the investigation and consequently their declining SILL scores.

At Flying English, which recorded the highest average SILL increase of any group of participants, there was initial reluctance to participate in the study from a number of students, but the teacher eventually managed to convince all but one potential participant of the merits of the study. The class went so far as to develop a Google site on which they posted their feedback in Japanese on their strategy practice, helping other students with future strategy selection. On the other hand, the 11 participants at I.E.P. were indifferent to the study, and student complaints about time spent on strategy training meant that the teacher was unable to devote an appropriate amount of time each week for strategy selection, training, and feedback, and the school administration recommended that the second SILL be offered as optional homework. Further administrative pressure related to the English-only policy of the class meant that despite the students' relatively low English levels, the teacher was unable to offer students the Japanese translation of the SILL for the poststudy survey.

Overall, researchers at three of the five research sites were able to fully implement the SILL training, and at these three sites students showed improvement in their SILL scores at the end of the investigation. Thus when sufficient time could be devoted to the students' strategy selection, training, and reflection, the students' SILL scores improved, suggesting that LLS training can be effective.

Participant Feedback

During the feedback sessions, the participants' comments also indicated a range of feelings about the study. At both Meisei and Komazawa, the feedback was generally positive in tone, with numerous students reporting on the usefulness of the strategies in broadening their study techniques. Comments such as, "I think it's good as I thought I could only memorize words, but now I can learn and write new words in many ways as well. So, it's a better way to study," and "My study is changing a little bit. I think about this idea (the training) sometimes," are representative of the feedback from the students at both universities. Students at Flying English generally reported that the training made them more motivated to study and to create opportunities for meaningful practice of their English. However, initial reluctance to participate was exemplified by one student leaving the school completely and emphasizes the importance of selecting an appropriate group of students for LLS training.

At Otsuma, feedback suggested that the students appreciated being introduced to the various strategies in the SILL, yet time constraints due to job hunting limited the students' abilities to implement the LLS training effectively. Feedback from participants at I.E.P. remained largely indifferent throughout and, echoing Griffiths's 2003 findings, indicated that the students were generally disinterested in the strategy training scheme, believing the teacher was not using the class time appropriately, with one student commenting, "Learning strategy: I don't understand this activities purpose" when responding to a question asking about their feelings towards various aspects of the course.

Language Learning Diaries

Participants were asked to complete regular reflections on their experiences with the LLS training, but the results were generally unimpressive. Among the university students, reluctance to write in their diaries was evident. Fewer than half the 30 students reflected regularly, and at Meisei and Komazawa, a number wrote no reflections at all, reporting that it was neither easy nor useful to reflect on their progress. At Otsuma, while many of the participants' diaries reported the negative impact of their job-hunting on their language learning, none of the 4th-year students expressed negative feelings toward the study.

The extent of the reflections from students in the private language schools differed significantly. Students at Flying English completed reflection sheets in Japanese regularly, in which they commented on their positive experiences with the strategy training. Students commented on the positive effect the study had on their ability to study English through reading, while another reflected on the extent to which the SILL had helped them discover different ways of learning. However, the reflections of students at I.E.P. were generally incomplete. One learner reflected that "Learning Words: (a) word association, (b) breaking down the word. It's hard to discuss and boring. I want to change topic more interesting."

Aside from students at Otsuma and Flying English, the completion of reflections in learning diaries was the least positive aspect of the study for students, suggesting a lack of familiarity with learning as a reflective process, a lack of understanding of the potential benefits of LLS training, and the influence of time constraints on student participation.

Implications

The radically different results for the students at the two private language schools are perhaps the most striking findings of this research. Both groups consisted of mature and motivated adult learners, yet an element of resistance was encountered at both sites. At Flying English, which recorded the highest average SILL increase of any group of participants, there was initial reluctance to participate in the study from a number of students, and one participant dropped out of both the study and the school. In this study, the researcher was also the owner of the school and was determined to continue with the research, but the possibility of concerns over revenue must be borne in mind by any researcher considering a similar program at a private language school.

At I.E.P., despite the class teacher's attempts to integrate the strategy training into the regular class routine, the majority of students did not welcome the focus on LLS. Student feedback to the school's administration resulted in the teacher reducing the time spent on strategy training, as well as constraints regarding the completion of the second SILL survey. While the benefits of explicit LLS training have repeatedly been made clear in research, teachers must bear in mind that research situated in private language schools has been limited, and that a certain level of reluctance may be encountered. For teachers in these schools, it would be prudent to ensure that prior consent and continuing cooperation is obtained from administration and participants before embarking on such a program.

Conclusion

Reflection on the three sources of data—the SILL scores, the participant feedback, and the students' diaries—lead to a number of insights. When sufficient time to satisfactorily explain and demonstrate strategies can regularly be set aside for LLS training, the benefits are tangible and are also evident to the participants themselves. Furthermore, having students select new LLSs every 2 weeks may help to keep them engaged in trying new ways of language learning.

For all researchers, the time-consuming nature of implementing and monitoring this LLS training is a point to consider when thinking about implementing such an investigation. Another issue is whether the students are asked to complete reflections in their native or target language. Allowing reflection in students' native language could encourage deeper and more honest reflection. Furthermore, when other time pressures are present, such as job-hunting responsibilities, students simply may not have the time to devote to a program of this nature. However, we feel that in the right circumstances, any time spent exposing learners to strategies and their uses is always worthwhile.

Bio Data

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Learning Strategies and Low Proficiency Students

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This pilot study explored the use of specific Language Learning Strategies (LLS) by 168 first- and 2nd-year Japanese university students enrolled in a compulsory English course. Students consisted of non-English majors from various departments with TOEIC Bridge scores ranging from 60 to 140. Participants were given a 4-part survey, which included 8 questions adapted from Oxford's (1989, 1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) in order to investigate strategy use, preference, and English study habits. The results of this pilot survey suggest that future research relating to the use of LLS by low proficiency Japanese university students would benefit from a more qualitative approach in order to understand student awareness, beliefs, and actual use of English learning strategies in the classroom.

本予備調査は、必修科目英語を履修する日本人大学生1年生および2年生168名を対象に、ある特定の言語学習ストラテジー（LLS）の使用について検証したものである。対象の学生は、TOEIC　Bridgeスコアが60～140点で、英語非専攻の、さまざまな学部の学生で構成されている。被験者にはOxford (1989, 1990) の Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) を参考にした8設問を含む、4項目に分かれたアンケート調査票を配布し、ストラテジー使用状況、好み、英語学習習慣について検証した。本予備調査の結果から、習熟度の低い日本人大学生によるLLSの使用に関する今後の研究において、学生の意識、言語学習観（ビリーフ）、言語学習ストラテジーの使用実態を把握するためには、定性的アプローチをより一層深めることが有効であると考えられる。

During the 1970s English language teaching became more focused on the learner's role in the classroom. This lead to several researchers examining *good language learners* (GLLs) in the hopes of finding fundamental traits or practices that could be taught to students of lower language proficiency. Initial research into the identification of characteristics associated with GLLs by Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, and Toedesco (1978) found that through the conscious use of appropriate learning strategies, learners are able to achieve higher language proficiency (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2003).

Oxford (1989) defined LLS as being specific actions that a learner takes to make the process of learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and more useful when dealing with new learning situations. The benefit to learners engaged in effective LLS use has been found to allow "students to become more independent, autonomous and lifelong learners" (Oxford, 2003, p. 8). Oxford clarified her definition of LLS, noting that strategies are neither good nor bad, and went on to state that an effective strategy needs to

- relate to the task,
- relate to the learner's style, and
- be used effectively by the student.

Defining Language Learning Strategies

Current research suggests that there are a wide variety of strategies that learners can use. The exact number of strategies available to learners to make learning easier is still highly debatable (Oxford & Cohen, 1992). Furthermore, methods of classification have been varied and contested by Skehan (1989) and more recently Dörnyei (2005), with new classifications continually being introduced (Rose, 2012).

Possibly the most recognized taxonomy of strategies was developed by Oxford, which also led to the creation of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL; Oxford, 1989, 1990). Even though the validity and the reliability of the SILL have been challenged, it remains the most extensively used taxonomy of strategic language learning by researchers throughout the world (Bremner, 1999). It was for this reason that the SILL was chosen as the source of the items selected for this pilot study.

The SILL, which consists of 50 items, is designed to identify the frequency of strategy use for each strategy type and measure the frequency with which a student uses a particular strategy. Figure 1 shows how the SILL is divided into two main sections: direct and indirect strategies.

The direct strategies are used in dealing with a new language. The three groups that belong to the direct strategies are memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. Direct strategies involve the mental process of receiving, retaining, storing, and retrieving language.

The indirect strategies are used for language learning management, organization, and the handling of the physical and social aspects associated with language learning. The three groups that belong to the indirect strategies are metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. Indirect strategies involve the process of planning, identifying feelings, and engaging with other language learners, as can be seen in the chart below (Rausch, 2000).

Table 1. SILL Sections

Direct Strategies	Indirect Strategies
Memory strategies • Connecting new language to images or pictures • Reviewing new language and English lessons	Metacognitive strategies • Arranging and planning learning • Scheduled Evaluation of learning
Cognitive strategies • Saying and writing new language • Analyzing and negotiating meaning	Affective strategies • Trying to relaxing and lower anxiety levels • Identifying feelings
Compensation strategies • Guessing meaning • Overcoming limitations through adaptation	Social strategies • Asking questions • Practicing with others students

Note. Adapted from Oxford (1990).

This pilot study specifically focused on the usage of selected memory and cognitive strategies among low proficiency Japanese learners. The reason for selecting these two groups was based on published research in the area of LLS highlighting that these strategy groups are frequently used among good Japanese learners (Takeuchi, 2003).

Memory Strategies

Memory strategies help language learners connect one item of language or concept with another. These strategies are most commonly associated with learning vocabulary and include grouping, using imagery, and using flashcards. Memory strategies are directly related to helping students store and retrieve new language (Oxford, 1996).

Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies enable the learner to manipulate the language material in direct ways. These strategies have been found to significantly relate to language proficiency and include note taking, summarizing, or reasoning deductively. Cognitive strategies enable learners to understand and produce new language (Oxford, 1996).

Purposes of This Pilot Study

This pilot study was motivated by a need to identify the present usage and awareness of standard memory and cognitive strategies among low proficiency Japanese learners in a university context. There were two key purposes:

- to identify the specific type of memory or cognitive strategies used and the frequency of their use by low proficiency Japanese learners at university; and
- to identify additional strategies or other ways students studied English.

Research Questions

1. Do low proficiency Japanese university students use commonly researched memory and cognitive language learning strategies?
2. What other language learning strategies do low proficiency Japanese university students report using and how many hours do they self-study per week?

Method

Participants

Data was collected in December 2011 from 168 students at a private coed Japanese university. There were 113 first-year students and 55 second-year students, consisting of 28 female students and 140 male students. These students represented 1st- and 2nd-year students of various majors enrolled in a compulsory English program, with TOEIC Bridge scores ranging from 60 to140 (TOEIC Bridge score 140 is equivalent to TOEIC score 395). The specific goal of the program was for students on completion of 2 years of study to graduate with a TOEIC Bridge score of over 140.

The students had one 90-minute English conversation class per week (30 classes per year) with a native English teacher and one 90-minute English class per week (30 classes per year) with a Japanese teacher. The English conversation classes specifically focused on improving basic communicative listening and speaking skills.

All students participated in a vocabulary program over the 2 years of English study. The 1,600 most frequent spoken and written English words were selected from the Longman *Eiwa Jiten* [English-Japanese dictionary] and presented over 10 weeks each term. The goal of the program was for the students to master these words. Pre- and posttests were mandatory for all classes. Teachers required students to complete a vocabulary notebook each week followed by a weekly vocabulary quiz. This notebook usually required approximately 2 hours of homework per week.

Generally these students had low motivation and did the minimum work required to complete the course. Their TOEIC Bridge scores suggested that they did not exhibit or employ the traits of good language learners, especially concerning the use of strategies.

Description of Instrument

This survey consisted of four parts:

- Part A requested student background information.
- Part B identified frequency of strategy use.
- Part C asked students what other ways they studied English.
- Part D asked students to state the amount of time they studied English outside of scheduled classes.

The key part of the current study involved Part B (see Appendices A and B). This part consisted of eight strategy statements adapted from Oxford's SILL and was used to collect information on frequency of strategy use. The strategy statements were translated from English into Japanese by Japanese native-speaking colleagues. The Japanese version was then back translated. Some minor modifications were then made in the wording of certain strategy statements to ensure comprehensibility of translation. Students were asked to rate each strategy statements on a 6-point Likert scale of *never*, *very rarely*, *rarely*, *occasionally*, *frequently*, and *always*. The survey was designed to be completed in 5 to 10 minutes prior to the commencement of a class.

Note that two statements were adapted to better fit with the students' situation. Statement 3 was changed to *vocabulary notebook* from the original *flashcards* to reflect the use of vocabulary notebooks in the students' program. Statement 7 was also changed from *I do not translate word-for-word* to *I translate word-for-word* to keep all statements positive.

Findings

The results of this pilot survey showed that both 1st- and 2nd-year students reported using all eight strategy types. Table 1 is a summary of the mean reported frequency of language learning strategy use by 1st- and 2nd-year students. Table 1 shows that across all eight statements, student strategy utilization was found to be moderate. The data show that students used cognitive strategies at a greater frequency than memory strategies and interestingly, 1st-year students used strategies at a slightly higher frequency than did 2nd-year students.

An important point to note is the response to Item 7 *I translate word-for-word*. This item was reported as the most used strategy by all students. The 1st-year students reported greater use than the 2nd-year students. This reported use of a less effective strategy may be one which 1st-year students used in their high school grammar-translation-style classes. The high reported use of word-for-word translation may also suggest that 1st-year students still have a limited repertoire of cognitive strategies and rely on what they used in high school English classes. This reinforces the idea that both good and not-so-good language learners use strategies—but quite possibly good language learners use more, use them more effectively, and reevaluate when and where to use a given strategy. Lower reported use by the 2nd-year students may suggest that after exposure to communicative language learning in the 1st year of university, they are able to use varying strategies when analyzing and negotiating new vocabulary.

Table 2. Frequency of Language Learning Strategy Use

Survey Item	Statement	Reported Means 1st-year students $n = 114$	2nd-year students $n = 54$	All students $N = 168$
1	I use new English words in sentences so I can remember them.	2.67	2.60	2.65
2	I remember a new English word by connecting it to an image or picture.	3.26	3.04	3.20
3	I use a vocabulary notebook to remember new English words.	3.05	3.01	3.33
4	I review English lessons.	2.97	2.96	2.97
5	I say new words several times.	3.55	3.00	3.36
6	I write new words several times.	3.28	3.14	3.24
7	I translate word-for-word.	3.84	3.75	3.82
8	I practice the sounds of English.	3.11	2.98	3.07
Overall mean reported frequency of use		3.27	3.06	3.21

Note. Students rated items of a 6-point Likert scale: 1 = never to 6 = always.

In Part C of the survey students were asked "What other ways do you study English?" In Table 2 the data indicate that a large number of students used no other strategies when studying English. This may be due to a lack of study skill training, as more than 55% of the students left this part of the survey blank. That some students actually chose to report their own ways to study (see Table 3) is encouraging but it bears further examination into how students actually watch English TV or movies to study.

Table 3. Student Self-Report Comments Regarding Own Ways to Study

Student self-reported comment	Number of comments
Nothing	22
Watch English TV or movies	10
Listen to English (international) music	9
Do class homework	9
Use the university E-Learning system	8
Write new words several times	7
Listen to English learning CDs	6
Read Japanese and translate to English	1
Check Japanese meaning in dictionary	1
Imagine English questions	1
Do not translate	1

The survey results may offer suggestions on how English teachers could greater engage with Japanese students in the classroom or with homework assignments, especially low proficiency learners.

Conclusion

The focus of this pilot study was to explore the use of memory and cognitive strategies among low proficiency Japanese learners in university education. The results reveal that the students used similar types of strategies regardless of their academic year and that across all eight statements, student strategy utilization was found to be moderate. Based on these findings, one could argue that language learning strategy instruction needs to play a greater role in Japanese classrooms. English language teachers in Japan could introduce LLS during a student's initial exposure to English, thereby providing students with the tools needed to study autonomously. We believe that increased exposure to LLS at an earlier age may result in greater learner autonomy among Japanese learners.

It should be noted that this pilot study had limitations that should be addressed in future research. The central limitation was the fact that interviews with a sample group of students were not conducted initially to establish what strategies are most relevant to low proficiency Japanese learners. Furthermore, a fundamental drawback to survey results is that they do not report exactly how students interpret the questions. As suggested by Woodrow (2005), future research relating to the use of LLS by Japanese university students needs to take a qualitative approach in order to understand student awareness, beliefs, and actual LLS use.

In the future, we plan to conduct qualitative research to focus more on which strategies are most relevant to learner types and learner objectives. Through student interviews, we plan to investigate how students implement the strategies they report. It is hoped that future research in Japan will look at using student interviews and qualitatively validated survey items to truly investigate what happens when Japanese learners study English.

Bio Data

Andrew Thompson is an English lecturer at Kyushu Sangyo University in Fukuoka, Japan. He has a MA in Applied Linguistics from Monash University and a BA in Communications and Sociology from Griffith University, Australia. His areas of research interest include curriculum development, language learning strategies, student interest, and motivation. <thompson@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp>

Robert Cochrane has taught at all levels in the Japanese education system from elementary school to university. With an MA from the university of Birmingham he is now lecturing and conducting research at Kyushu Sangyo University in western Japan. His present research covers materials development based on task-based language learning, language learning strategies, cognitive approaches to 2nd language acquisition, and CALL. <cochrane@ip.kyusan-u.ac.jp>

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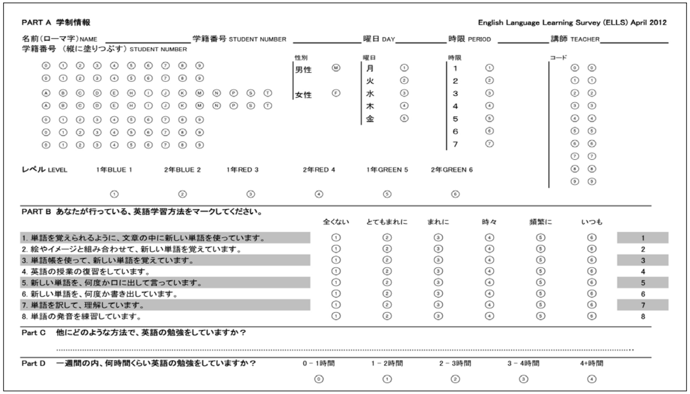
Appendix A

Japanese Version of LLS Survey 2012



PART A 学制情報

English Language Learning Survey (ELLS) April 2012

名前(ローマ字)NAME ____ 学籍番号 STUDENT NUMBER ____ 曜日 DAY ____ 時限 PERIOD ____ 講師 TEACHER ____

学籍番号 (縦に塗りつぶす) STUDENT NUMBER

性別: 男性 M / 女性 F

曜日: 月 1 / 火 2 / 水 3 / 木 4 / 金 5

時限: 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 / 6 / 7

コード

レベル LEVEL: 1年BLUE 1 / 2年BLUE 2 / 1年RED 3 / 2年RED 4 / 1年GREEN 5 / 2年GREEN 6

PART B あなたが行っている、英語学習方法をマークしてください。

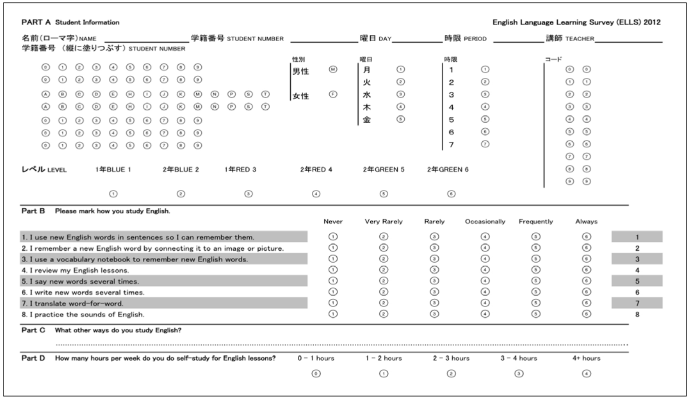
	全くない	とてもまれに	まれに	時々	頻繁に	いつも	
1. 単語を覚えられるように、文章の中に新しい単語を使っています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	1
2. 絵やイメージと組み合わせて、新しい単語を覚えています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	2
3. 単語帳を使って、新しい単語を覚えています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	3
4. 英語の授業の復習をしています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	4
5. 新しい単語を、何度か口に出して言っています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	5
6. 新しい単語を、何度か書き出しています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	6
7. 単語を訳して、理解しています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 単語の発音を練習しています。	1	2	3	4	5	6	8

Part C 他にどのような方法で、英語の勉強をしていますか？

Part D 一週間の内、何時間くらい英語の勉強をしていますか？ 0 − 1時間 (0) / 1 − 2時間 (1) / 2 − 3時間 (2) / 3 − 4時間 (3) / 4+時間 (4)

Appendix B

English Version of LLS Survey 2012



PART A Student Information

English Language Learning Survey (ELLS) 2012

名前(ローマ字)NAME ____ 学籍番号 STUDENT NUMBER ____ 曜日 DAY ____ 時限 PERIOD ____ 講師 TEACHER ____

学籍番号 (縦に塗りつぶす) STUDENT NUMBER

性別: 男性 M / 女性 F

曜日: 月 1 / 火 2 / 水 3 / 木 4 / 金 5

時限: 1 / 2 / 3 / 4 / 5 / 6 / 7

コード

レベル LEVEL: 1年BLUE 1 / 2年BLUE 2 / 1年RED 3 / 2年RED 4 / 2年GREEN 5 / 2年GREEN 6

Part B Please mark how you study English.

	Never	Very Rarely	Rarely	Occasionally	Frequently	Always	
1. I use new English words in sentences so I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	1
2. I remember a new English word by connecting it to an image or picture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	2
3. I use a vocabulary notebook to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5	6	3
4. I review my English lessons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	4
5. I say new words several times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	5
6. I write new words several times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	6
7. I translate word-for-word.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I practice the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	8

Part C What other ways do you study English?

Part D How many hours per week do you do self-study for English lessons? 0 − 1 hours (0) / 1 − 2 hours (1) / 2 − 3 hours (2) / 3 − 4 hours (3) / 4+ hours (4)

Making an Impact with Peer Tutoring

Craig Manning
The University of Shimane

Reference Data:

Manning, C. (2013). Making an impact with peer tutoring. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

In this study, I aimed to determine if, and to what extent, peer tutoring can be used as a means to improve remedial English studies within a Japanese university context. Over 11 weeks, 96 English students participated in the study. The experimental group, with tutors, improved more than 3 times as much as the control group, without tutors, on achievement tests. Classroom behavior improved with the addition of tutors. The feedback from both tutees and tutors was also extremely positive. It was concluded that peer tutoring has the potential to make remedial studies more enjoyable and effective.

本研究の目的は、日本の大学のリメディアル英語教育の授業においてピア・チュータリングを実施し、その効果を検証することであった。リメディアル英語を履修する96名の学生を対象に11週間以上にわたって調査を実施した。結果として、実験群（ピア・チュータリングを受けた学生群）は、統制群（ピア・チュータリングを受けなかった学生群）の3倍、試験の成績が向上した。受講態度についてもチューターとともに学ぶことにより改善された。「チューターとなる学生」と「チュータリングの対象となる学生」の双方からの授業評価も肯定的であった。以上により、ピア・チュータリングはリメディアル学習をより楽しく、効果的なものとする可能性があることが示唆された。

Like many others, the university I teach at accepts low-level English students, but requires a minimum score on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) for graduation. The curriculum uses multiple approaches to help freshmen meet the minimum TOEIC 350 requirement. First-year students are grouped by ability. Each group of 25 students participates in a Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) course coupled with a TOEIC test-taking lecture series. There are also a four-skills communicative course, an extensive reading program, and frequent extracurricular English activities. Plus, students can seek help from faculty or from a full-time native English speaker at an English-focused self-access center.

Because of this support, approximately 90% of students exceed the minimum TOEIC score of 350 by the end of their 1st year, leaving about 10% of 1st-year students in need of remedial English classes. To combat this problem, 4 years ago, a remedial English course was created to provide additional support for freshmen who score below TOEIC 250 on the initial exam. The remedial English course aims to improve students' grammatical understanding, thereby increasing the amount of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) and meaningful study during regular English classes. In addition, improving grammatical competence is one part of improving communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980), which is needed to achieve higher proficiency test scores. The remedial class consists of a 45-minute lecture, taught by a local high school teacher, and a 45-minute independent study period. During the independent study period, students solve grammar problems from a workbook while being observed by a teaching assistant.

In the last 4 years, the remedial course has not proven to be as effective as desired. There are several possible explanations. First, the students may not have been studying effectively. In order for students to reach a level where they can generalize and apply learning strategies on their own, a certain amount of individual feedback, scaffolding, and explicit instruction is often required. This may surpass what a teacher can offer in the classroom (Lenz & Deshler, 2004). There might also have been a poor match of instruction and personal learning style (McDonough & Shaw, 2003). Additionally, the study periods were not being utilized well. Despite penalties for being off task, attendance was low and sleeping was not uncommon. The apparent lack of student motivation, manifesting in low participation, was a likely source of ineffectiveness.

The unsatisfactory results of the remedial English program led to a search for more effective methods to help at-risk students obtain the required TOEIC score. One means for potential improvement, revealed during this ongoing search, is peer tutoring. Introducing systematic peer support would require only small changes to the university's remedial English course structure and could provide more effective help for struggling students. This paper aims to determine if, and to what extent, peer tutoring can be used as a means to improve remedial English studies within a Japanese university context. As such, the specific research questions of this paper are as follows:

1. Can peer tutoring be used to increase proficiency gains?
2. Can peer tutoring be used to increase achievement gains?
3. Does peer tutoring have a positive effect on classroom behavior?

Foundations for a Peer-Tutoring Program

The term *peer* can be broadly defined as someone of the same social standing (Colvin, 2007, p. 4). In the context of teaching and learning, and for the purposes of this paper, peer is used to describe a variety of relationships and "the degree to which students are truly 'peers' varies across the range of possible . . . applications" (Falchikov, 2001, p. 1). The more strongly students identify with each other, the closer they are to being true peers. Age, ethnicity, gender, culture, and subculture are examples of things people use to identify with each other (Parkin & McKegany, 2000, p. 295). Ability, or level, is another important factor. Grouping students of different ages and levels are among the specific applications that will be examined in this paper.

Astin (1993) examined 88 environmental factors using samples from 159 universities and found that student-student and student-faculty interactions were the two most influential factors impacting educational outcomes. From his findings, Astin concluded that "how students approach general education (and how the faculty actually deliver the curriculum) is far more important than the formal curricular content and structure" (p. 425). Student-student interaction is especially important, as peer influence may be stronger than that of teachers, parents, and other adults in many situations (Mellanby, Rees, & Tripp, 2000). Astin argued, "The student's peer group is the single most potent source of influence on growth and development during the undergraduate years" (p. 398).

The benefits of peer tutoring seem to be well established. Slavin (1990) regarded research done on students helping other students learn as "one of the most thoroughly researched of all instructional methods" (p. 52). A meta-analysis of peer tutoring by Cohen, Kulik, and Kulik (1982) found that in 52 out of 65 studies, tutees scored higher on achievement tests on average than students in untutored control groups. However, I have had considerable difficulty locating studies specifically on peer tutoring in Japan at the university level. In Japan, the use of tutors is believed to end when students graduate from high school (White, Eguchi, Kawanaka, & Henneberry, 2005). The exception to this lack of research seems to be international language exchange programs. However, these exchange programs are considerably different than the remedial English context being examined in this paper.

Given the otherwise vast research base, the widespread absence of programs in Japan is surprising, but not uncommon. Schmoker (1999) observed, "One of the more jarring paradoxes in education is the gap between the rich research base on cooperative learning and its unfortunate underuse in the classroom" (p. 73). Perhaps this is the case in Japanese universities as well. As theories are put into practice in this study, explanations for this phenomenon may be encountered.

Methods

Participants in the study were a total of 96 English students from two remedial classes, one consisting of freshmen and the other sophomores through seniors. Students from each class were divided according to even and odd student numbers to make control and experimental groups, as outlined in Table 1.

Table 1 Experimental and Control Groups

Class	Control group (studying individually without tutors)	Experimental group (studying in small groups with tutors)
Freshmen	Group A: 20 students	Group B: 20 students
Sophomores ~ Seniors	Group C: 28 students	Group D: 28 students

The control groups participated in weekly 45-minute remedial lectures, with 45-minute independent study periods during which they solved problems from a workbook, working alone. The experimental groups participated in weekly 45-minute remedial lectures, with 45-minute group study periods that included peer tutors with significantly higher TOEIC scores. During these group study periods, remedial students solved problems from a workbook in groups of four, three students and one tutor. They were encouraged to ask questions and explain things to each other. The tutors helped remedial students solve their own problems or asked another student to explain. The tutors provided explanations only if the explanation in the book was unclear and no one else in the group could explain it.

In addition to having higher test scores, the tutors who were asked to participate had been observed as responsible, helpful toward others, and positive during their regular English classes. These three qualities were considered more important than their test scores. The tutors were given 1 hour of preservice training, which included the goals of the program and an introduction to practical skills such as active listening, redirecting questions back to students, and positive reinforcement techniques. They were paid a minimum wage for working as tutors.

The remedial lectures covered the same contents at approximately the same pace for all four groups. The study spanned 11 weeks; 2 weeks were used to administer tests, leaving 9 study sessions. During the study sessions, all remedial students solved problems from the same workbook, *Grammar Clinic* (Sato, 2006).

To answer the first research question, students' proficiencies were measured using the TOEIC test. This well-established test was administered once at the beginning of the semester in April and again toward the end of the semester in July.

To answer the second research question, achievement gains were measured using pre- and posttests created using representative samples of questions from the students' workbook. To create the tests the split half method (Hughes, 2003) was applied. That is, odd-numbered questions were used to create the pretest and even-numbered questions were used to create the posttest, ensuring similar problems for each test.

To answer the final research question, classroom behavior was monitored and quantified using a point system. For each lecture, students had the opportunity to earn three points. For each study session, they could earn and additional 3 points. To earn full points, the students had to arrive on time and stay on task for 45 minutes. If they were less than 5 minutes late, 1 point was deducted. If they were more than 5 minutes late, 2 points were deducted. If they were more than 30 minutes late, 3 points were deducted. In addition, 1 point was taken away for off-task activities such as texting or talking on a cell phone, reading comics, or sleeping. The point system was included in the syllabus and explicitly outlined at the beginning of the semester. To pass the remedial class, students had to earn at least 66% of the participation points. A teaching assistant was present at all times to observe and award points. Following each class, these points were entered into an online learning platform, Moodle. Students could access their points online. In addition, two paper-based progress reports were handed out during the semester.

Results and Discussion

Changes in proficiency, achievement, and classroom behavior were measured using the research instruments introduced in the previous section.

Proficiency Gains

The TOEIC test was used to measure proficiency gains. A summary of the results can be found in Table 2.

Table 2. Average TOEIC Test Results of Students Who Took Both Tests

Test	**Group A** Freshmen control group (n = 20)	**Group B** Freshmen with tutors (n = 19)	**Group C** 2nd-4th year control group (n = 13)	**Group D** 2nd-4th year with tutors (n = 15)
April	222	224	294	281
July	304	293	288	321
Difference	+82	+69	-6	+40

The standard error of measurement for the TOEIC test is given as plus or minus 35 points (Educational Testing Services, 2007). The averages in April show that the groups being compared (Group A with Group B and Group C with Group D) had scores within this range. This confirms that they were suitable for research purposes.

Looking at the proficiency gains shown in Table 2, three groups improved more than 35 points, while group C decreased by 6 points. The freshmen control group outperformed the group with tutors by 13 points, though this difference is within the standard error of measurement. The sophomore through senior group with tutors outperformed the control group by 46 points. This is a significant difference.

There are a number of factors that could have contributed to the greater gains achieved by freshmen. These students were largely unfamiliar with the TOEIC test when entering university in April. Over the course of their first semester, they received special instruction on TOEIC test-taking strategies in their regular English courses. These courses also included CALL activities similar to questions on the TOEIC test. Therefore, they were much more familiar with the test in July. The older students were already familiar with the TOEIC test. So, becoming familiar with the test and test-taking strategies were less likely to result in further improvement.

Group D improved considerably more than group C. However, since groups A and B had similar proficiency gains, it is not clear that the added support from tutors resulted directly in proficiency gains. The differences between groups C and D suggest that the tutors may have had a positive influence. However, the results of the next section provide more information to base conclusions on.

Achievement Gains

Representative samples of questions from the students' workbook were selected and divided to create similar groups of questions. These groups of questions served to create a pre- and posttest, which were used to measure achievement gains. A summary of the results is in Table 3.

Table 3. Average Achievement Test Results of Students Who Took Both Tests

Test	Group A Freshmen control group (*n* = 16)	Group B Freshmen with tutors (*n* = 18)	Group C 2nd-4th year control group (*n* = 22)	Group D 2nd-4th year with tutors (*n* = 24)
April	41.3%	37.3%	40.6%	44.5%
July	42.1%	56.1%	46.6%	62.5%
Difference	0.8%	18.8%	6.0%	18.0%

As can be seen in Table 3, all of the groups showed improvement to various degrees. However, group A's improvement was minimal. Both groups working with tutors showed noticeably more improvement than the control groups, 18.0% and 18.8% improvement with tutors as apposed to 0.8% and 6.0% without. Clearly, the tutoring program was more effective at generating achievement gains.

Changes in Classroom Behavior

Classroom behavior was monitored using attendance records and observations about the quality of participation. A summary of attendance and participation can be found in Table 4.

Table 4. Attendance and Participation Points

Points	Group A Freshmen control group (*n* = 20)	Group B Freshmen with tutors (*n* = 20)	Group C 2nd-4th year control group (*n* = 28)	Group D 2nd-4th year with tutors (*n* = 28)
Total points earned on average (66 points possible)	54.2	56.2	47.7	48.8
Number of absences	26	16	55	59
Number of times late	11	1	9	3
Number of times cell phones were used	1	0	3	0
Number of times sleeping	9	0	16	0

As can be seen in Table 4, the groups working with tutors earned more participation points on average, but only slightly. Analysis suggests that tutoring did not influence attendance. The quality of participation after coming to the study sessions, however, was much better for students working with tutors. There were no instances of sleeping or cell phone use in remedial classes with tutors. The difference in tardiness may best be explained by the order of the classes; tutoring sessions followed the lectures, whereas the control groups worked independently before the lectures. However, the tutoring sessions began earlier as the semester progressed to the point where it was abnormal not to start early. On one occasion, the teaching assistant was uncertain if she should deduct points from a student for being "late." The student was technically 2 minutes early, but all the other students had been working for several minutes. This instance suggests that tutoring had a beneficial effect regarding the start time.

Qualitative results, specifically weekly comments from tutees, also suggest that the tutoring sessions were beneficial for students' attitude. Translated comments included the following:

- "I tried solving questions by myself. I want to keep doing it!"
- "I want to review so I can remember what I learned today."
- "I prepared for the class."
- "I concentrated while studying. I want to concentrate while studying in the dormitory, too."
- "I realized the necessity of review."
- "I enjoyed studying English."
- "The explanations are easy to understand. I don't want to waste time, so I want to prepare questions before the class."
- "My image of English has changed."

Weekly comments from tutors suggest that tutoring had some positive effects, especially with regards to learning while helping others and gaining skills as a tutor. Comments included the following:

- "I can learn not only teaching skills, but also important grammar."
- "I recognized that my weak point is grammar."
- "I learned more about English by teaching."
- "I think I have improved my teaching skills!"
- "Today, I could teach better than before. I believe they will pass their tests."
- "I was sad because it is the last day. I learned a lot over the past 3 months."
- "I could learn, too! I enjoyed this class."

Further Discussion

Unlike the results for proficiency gains, the results for achievement gains were less likely to have been affected by external factors. None of the students had previous experience with the textbook used to generate the pre- and posttests. Furthermore, students all covered the same material at approximately the same pace. The differences in achievement gains between groups can be strongly attributed to the method of instruction during the study sessions. Introducing tutors did enhance the effectiveness of instruction in the remedial program. Now that students are showing more improvement, efforts can be focused on building a stronger correlation between achievement gains and proficiency gains. Perhaps the content of the remedial studies course can be changed to improve this correlation.

In retrospect, using a high school grammar workbook for remedial studies was an inappropriate choice, as shown by Uchibori, Chujo, and Hasegawa (2006). Their in-depth analysis compares the frequency of grammar patterns found in high school English textbooks with those found on the TOEIC test. Their analysis shows that high school textbooks focus on complex grammar structures, whereas the TOEIC test frequently tests knowledge of simple grammar structures. Uchibori et al. (2006) concluded.

> In short, not only do high school textbooks *not* prepare students for the types of grammatical structures that frequently appear in TOEIC questions, but the grammatical features and structures that are so highly rated as to receive prominent coverage in the explanatory notes of the textbooks (other than sentence patterns) frequently do not appear in TOEIC questions at all. (p. 235)

Using Uchibori et al.'s (2006) list of grammar points, ranked by frequency of appearance on the TOEIC test, it should be possible to choose a more appropriate textbook. Future results of the remedial program can be monitored to determine if this change improves the correlation between achievement and proficiency gains.

Conclusion

In this study, I primarily sought to determine if, and to what extent, peer tutoring could be used as a means to improve remedial English studies within a Japanese university. The results demonstrate that peer tutoring can be used successfully for that purpose. Further investigation into the TOEIC test has suggested that changing the remedial study material has the potential to lead to an increase in future proficiency gains. In terms of achievement gains, tutees improved over three times as much as students in the control group. Tutees were also more able to stay on task and seemed to enjoy studying with tutors. Likewise, the tutors seemed to enjoy helping others while reinforcing and expanding their own knowledge.

While the program is far from perfect, the theories and methods discussed in this paper have lead to improvements in the remedial English course. Hopefully, these efforts will continue to develop a more enjoyable and effective academic support system that can be used to maintain academic standards in the future.

Bio Data

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Masculinity and the Study Abroad Experience

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In this paper I use uses psychoanalytic theory as a tool for understanding how learners construct and maintain their identities before their study abroad experiences. After discussing how subjectivity and masculinity are conceptualized within psychoanalysis, some of the commonly held ideas about identity and the acquisition of English expressed by male participants in the predeparture stage of study abroad is discussed.

この論文では、精神分析学を利用すると、留学前の参加者がどのように自分のアイデンティティを構成したり維持したりするかが明瞭になると論じている。前半は精神分析学の中で「主観性」と「男らしさ」という概念を詳述する。後半では留学への出発前の期間中に何名かの男性参加者が述べたアイデンティティと英語習得に対する共通意見を紹介する。

Shun appeared obsessed with becoming a foreigner. Over the 10-month period during which I was his teacher and mentor, his desire to assume the identity of what he saw as the ideal image of a native speaker seemed increasingly urgent as the day for his departure to go abroad approached. For Shun, however, taking upon a "foreign identity" entailed much more than the acquisition of English language skills; for him it represented the possibility to transform himself into what he perceived to be a stereotypical Caucasian. It was this ideal that sustained and nurtured his motivation to learn English and get a score on the TOEFL test high enough to guarantee his acceptance into a 4-year degree program in the United States. The thought of metamorphosis began to consume him during his predeparture education, to the extent that he began wearing blue contact lenses and was even considering getting surgery to make his eyes and nose more like that of a Caucasian.

While the desire to acquire English manifested as a desire to radically change one's physical appearance may be relatively rare, most students who participate in study abroad programs—whether they last for just a few months or extend to an entire university career—see the experience as personally transformative. During the predeparture phase, on the several occasions when I interviewed and observed Shun, he repeated two ideas: a "longing for" or "admiration of" (*akogareru*) foreigners, on the one hand, and a need to "be recognized" or "be approved of" (*mitomerareru*) by them. As my research has progressed in various educational contexts, these two notions have come up again and again when individuals talk about their desire to acquire English. And although Shun's image of himself as reflected in the mirror of the foreign *Other* was certainly taken to the extreme, it might be argued that these two desires underlie the social construction of English language acquisition in Japan (Seargeant, 2009).

Of course, individuals decide to learn foreign and second languages (hereinafter, L2) for diverse reasons, and the conditions in which they undertake this task are just as varied. Moreover, the experience with acquiring the target language has numerous developmental and social implications. A learner who acquires a language at the same time he or she learns his or her first language will certainly have a different experience than a learner who takes up learning the language in his or her teens or during adulthood. And just as one's first language is intimately connected with one's social identity, so too learning an L2 is bound up with the construction and maintenance of that identity.

The question of how one's identity relates to the motivation to learn a foreign language has been directly and indirectly addressed in a number of important studies (see, e.g., Norton, 2000; Norton & McKenney, 2011; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). For theorists and researchers working in the mainstream of L2 motivation, the answer to this question in the past decade has increasingly been that the two are intimately related, so much so, in fact, that they are one and the same or that identity and motivation are so bound up with each other that it is not possible to separate them (Dörnyei, 2009). This realization by L2 motivation researchers is something that has been central to the work of psychoanalysis, namely that what motivates people to do things cannot be separated from their identities (Mitchell & Black, 1995).

In this paper, the way in which students construct their identities during the predeparture phase of study abroad (SA) will be discussed in regard to how subjectivity and masculinity are approached in the psychoanalytic work of Sigmund Freud and Jacques Lacan. In the first section of this paper, the shared origins of social psychology and psychoanalysis and the divergent paths they took from the 19th century to the present will be discussed with the implications that this has had upon how they view consciousness and the subject. The insights that psychoanalysis can give to the question of how desire to acquire an L2 impacts upon an individual's identity will then be examined. In the second section, I will discuss some of the shared ideas about identity and the acquisition of English expressed by male participants in the predeparture stage of SA.

Psychoanalysis, Subjectivity, and Masculinity

While both psychoanalysis and social psychology emerged from Western philosophy, the way in which they have approached questions of identity, motivation, and human behavior are radically different. Social psychology is an Anglo-American project that fully embraced the rationalism of the Enlightenment. It seeks to discover through empirical methods the influences that others and the social environment have on individual thinking and behavior (Kruglanski & Higgins, 2007). Dominated by researchers in English speaking countries, L2 motivation research developed from this tradition. This, combined with the cognitivist bias of SLA, has led to the broadly held notion of the individual and his or her behavior and motivation as functioning within a computer-like information-processing system (Doughty & Long, 2003). The self and its consciousness have an inviolable border that separates them from other selves and their consciousnesses. Ever adaptable to the changing social situation, the self can be seen as ruling autocratically over the development of its consciousness and maintaining its social identity according to its autonomous and completely self-aware free will.

Psychoanalysis has, on the other hand, never rejected its philosophical roots. Beginning with J. G. Fichte and running through the work of F. W. J. Schelling and G. W. F. Hegel (Ellenberger, 1970; Ffytche, 2012), the self-assured Cartesian cogito was placed into doubt, centering upon the following key ideas that are at the core of psychoanalysis. First, the *I* (Ich or Ego) is constituted not only by the knowledge of one's own mind, but is equally constituted by the existence of the "not-I," or the *I* that is other or its negation (Feldstein, Fink, & Jannus, 1995). This, then, means that consciousness is just as much a part of our own minds as being external to ourselves. Second, the divided psyche is continually evolving within a dialectical process with other psyches, all of which are situated in a specific historical moment. The mind, consciousness, and the psyche, therefore, not only are a synthetic product of the internal and external worlds, but are always changing according to the socio-economic, political, and cultural milieu in which the individual is historically situated.

Freud argued that it is the *I* that coordinates all of the mental processes in the individual (Freud, 1923/1961). The *I* synchronizes the conscious and unconscious processes, and, as the locus of one's social identity, it attempts to mask the fundamental fracture inherent to the individual. The balancing act by the *I* is a delicate performance in which the influence of the unconscious is revealed (in the dream work, parapraxes, jokes, etc.) through displacement, condensation, symbolization, and dramatization (Freud, 1900/1953a). Malintegration of the unconscious and the conscious becomes apparent in the symptoms of psychosis and neurosis, the latter of which is manifest to a greater or lesser degree by "normal" individuals. Underlying this psychic structure is the motor of behavior: the *libido*—a sexual instinct that is aimed reflexively at the individual in its genesis and then turned outward toward an external object with psychosexual development and socialization (Freud, 1900/1953b). At the same time, instinct is fundamentally conservative in that it seeks to maintain stasis, and thus repression (or trauma) via the unconscious is preserved by the *I* (Freud, 1920/1955). The individual is not naturally inclined to a forward-looking, teleological development. Instead, present behavior and the constitution of self or the *I* is just as much, if not more, a product of our histories, and our future is, in great part, dictated by a past that can at any moment slip beyond our conscious control.

The idea of a fractured being and Otherness of the psyche was built upon and interpreted within the framework of structural linguistics by Jacques Lacan (1966/2007) who explored how subjects and their desire are produced through language and social structures. Lacan began by reminding us that the human child is unique in that it is born helpless, requiring the mother or other caretaker to fulfill its every need, which she does even before the child asks for it. At a particular moment in the child's development (*le stade du miroir*, the mirror stage) it recognizes that it is separate from the mother, and this realization produces a split, an enduring sense of lack (*manque*) and a want to fill that hole in the self. The desire is, therefore, both for the Other as well as desire to be desired by the other (*le desir de l'Autre*, the desire of or for the Other).

In order to become social beings, an individual must take up a subject position. Language, Lacan (1966/2007) argued, allows the individual to do so by giving it an *I*, but at the same time this *I* is alienated from itself. The meaning of this *I* can only be retrieved by linguistic and pragmatic contexts; it is merely a symbolic placeholder for the human in a web of significations that never singles out one unique individual. Though human beings grasp at the possibility of being unique and complete, this is never possible because it is language that has already constituted the way in which humans can interact with others in society even before birth.

Gender and subjectivity have been controversial concepts within psychoanalysis itself as well as among its detractors. In Lacanian psychoanalysis, sexual difference is defined by the relationship of the subject to the Other and the symbolic, and this difference is psychical rather than biological (Ragland, 2004). For Lacan the two neuroses, obsession and hysteria, represented the prototypical masculine and feminine structures, respectively. In the most extreme form of the masculine structure, the obsessive-compulsive, Fink (1997) argued, "*Desire is impossible in obsession*, because the closer the obsessive gets to realizing his desire . . . the more the Other begins to take precedence over him, eclipsing him as a subject. The presence of the Other threatens the obsessive with what Lacan called 'aphanisis,' his fading or disappearing as a subject" (p. 124, emphasis in original). For the obsessive-compulsive, the urge is to remove or annihilate the Other, thereby removing the Other as an impediment to appropriating the object. Although when taken to excess, obsession will become debilitating to the individual, even for the normal individual there will always be the tension between the underlying structure of desire and societal rules and norms setting limits upon behavior.

What does this imply for the acquisition of foreign languages? Psychoanalysis maintains that fundamentally all desires have their root cause in the double alienation that comes first when we realize that we are not whole and second when we become an *I* in the symbolic realm. A foreign language is an object like any other object that we desire to possess in the hope that we can fill the sense of lacking in our being. All of these objects are infinitely interchangeable and thoroughly unsatisfactory. Though we may be tempted to think that we can set up our *ideal L2 selves* and strive to become them, these ideal selves that we as subjects work to maintain are just as much, if not more, backward-looking toward the prehistorical unity of subject and Other. Likewise, the mastery of an L2 also includes mastery of the Other's desire. Thus, desire for an L2 is social: It emerges within the web of relationships between the subject and the Other, culture, social structures, and the institutions that promote and reinforce it (Althusser, 1971).

Data Analysis

Participants and Methodology

Over the past 10 years, my research on the SA experience has included participants from a variety of contexts that include a predeparture English for academic purposes (EAP) program for students preparing to enroll in 4-year universities in North America, a 1-year program integrated into the home university's 4-year curriculum, and a one-semester program that was part of a departmentally sponsored English minor program. Participants were recruited during a short introduction at the beginning of classes. The intention of the research was to investigate whether an underlying structure of culturally constructed Japanese masculine subjectivity could be identified while at the same time considering how different social and economic factors came into play among students of different social statuses and educational backgrounds. Therefore, the data presented here serve to illustrate some of the common characteristics of Japanese male students who participate in SA programs.

In the case of the first and last groups, I had much greater contact and interaction with the participants inasmuch as I was working as a full-time faculty member at the institution and, in the case of the first group, as the Dean of Students. In addition to classroom observation, I conducted structured interviews, gathered narratives at several points during all three phases of SA, and set up small group structured discussions during the pre- and post-SA phases. The focus of this paper is the predeparture phase. Pseudonyms have been used to protect students' anonymity.

The Gaze and the Desire to Acquire English

Shinya

Shinya voiced a typical sentiment that was repeated by the majority of male SA participants in the predeparture phase.

When he was asked in an interview to explain what his current motivation for studying English was, he had a hard time expressing his interest. "It's not an interest in the language itself," he finally admitted, "but rather it's that foreign things are cool and I really have an admiration for them (*akogareru*)" (Interview, July 2005). Like many of the other predeparture students, what he appeared to be longing to acquire was expressed in terms of English language skills, but when urged to explain in greater detail, his (and their) desire diffused into vagaries and lodged itself into the gaze of the foreign which is then turned back upon themselves. "The reason why I want to master (*mi ni tsukeru*) the language is so that I will be recognized by others (*mitomerareru*). I want to look cool" (Interview, July 2005).

Yasunari

Like, Shinya, Yasunari also considered being seen as cool through proficient English ability as his primary goal for learning English. During a small group, semistructured discussion task, Yasunari summed up his goal for acquiring English by saying, "People said [bad] things about me . . . rather a lot. If I am able to do it [being able to speak English], it would be really cool and if they took a look again at that idiot [me], they would be sorry [for what they had said / thought before]" (Group discussion, September 2006).

While Yasunari's ideas about acquiring English to make himself look cool echoed what Shinya expressed, the former's desire took on darker dimensions. As it became clear in the discussion, Yasunari harbored a great deal of aggression toward his father, whom he saw as directing and trying to control his behavior. Yasunari stated that his father forced him to enroll in the predeparture program and constantly pushed him to study; yet at the same time his father frequently made deprecating comments about Yasunari as one who always gives up on everything he does.

This object of desire, English, was then appropriated by Yasunari as a way of taking power away from his father. As Yasunari continued in the discussion, he described how his father was also studying English but was not really acquiring native-like ability and mockingly ventriloquized his father using stereotypical Japanese-English pronunciation:

> Two or 3 years [ago] he started [studying English], somehow, for his job. It's that he uses English. But it's not that his English is good. Like Indians, somehow, and Arabs. Normally, he's speaking in Japanese, Japanese, "*ai amu a suchuudento*," like that. It's like that. You can't understand it. If you only hear that kind of English, you can't come to understand it. It's not perfect, and as he speaks like that I'm laughing at it. He's thinking, "I'm really cool," like that. (Group discussion, September 2006)

Yasunari and his father both wanted the same object of desire, English proficiency, but his father's attempts to achieve it were portrayed by Yasunari as incomplete: His father would only ever be able to speak English as if it were Japanese and therefore his father's effort to acquire their mutual object of desire was undermined. Thus, Yasunari was caught in a bind between desiring what his father wants (Lacan reminded us that assuming the desires of the Other is an inevitable aspect of the formation of desire) and denying that object to his father. The unresolved rivalry between Yasunari and his father and Yasunari's inability to separate his desires from his father's led Yasunari into a cycle of failure (conflict with father figures such as his bosses at part-time jobs and his teachers) and violence. Eventually, Yasunari left the school, dropping out of the SA program before leaving Japan.

Takayuki

> They have a great impression, the posters that you gaze at, like that, and movies, the trailers for movies, the trailers, there are movies that you feel, "Wow! I really want to see it," aren't there? That kind of movie, I want to make them and communicate with people. . . . My final objective is to make the things I want to with Japanese sensibility and make foreigners say, "Wow!" (Group discussion, September 2006)

Takayuki draws our attention back to Lacan's portrayal of desire as "the desire of the Other," and the complementary ways in which this formulation captures the relationship between the subject, the object, and the Other. First of all, Takayuki expressed his desire to acquire English, an object that is possessed by the Other, the foreigners. Second, he inverted his own desire to acquire English into a desire to capture and control the attention of the Other by forcing their gaze upon himself. Takayuki's explanation of his desire fit together perfectly with how Lacan developed his idea of the gaze (*le regard*) by highlighting that the cause of the subject's desire originates in the object—at a blind spot from which the object is gazing at the subject. The gaze further undercuts the security of the subject: The subject's feelings of self-possession and omnipotence are fractured by the Other which turns the subject into an object of an Other's scopic gaze, something expressed by all three of the participants discussed in this paper.

As Lacan (1973/1981) said, "You never look at me from the place I see you" (p. 103)—which was expressed in Takayuki's goal of making theatrical trailers. The complex nature of the relationship between the subject, object and the other is summed up in the idiom that Takayuki uses to summarize what his goal for learning English is: "It is like killing two birds with one stone (*isseki nichō*)." The object of desire is never simple, nor is it ever capable of being completely satisfied. Desire merely reproduces itself. Moreover, desire is located not in the subject, but rather in the object itself. Just like Takayuki's dream of making film trailers, the object is, on the one hand, a simulacrum (the trailer not being the film itself but only a representation constructed to create desire) that postpones satisfaction, and on the other hand, it is always (and for Lacan, by definition) infinitely replaceable.

Conclusion

Dörnyei (2001) clearly articulated the bias of the field by summarily dismissing the influence of any psychical matter that is not available to consciousness on the motivation of the learner, saying, "most of the significant thoughts and feelings that affect learning achievement in prolonged educational settings are conscious and known by the learner" (pp. 9-10). As a result of biases such as this, the role of the unconscious as a source for individual motivation for L2 acquisition, in terms of learning goals and means of learning, has been largely ignored or held in contempt by researchers in mainstream SLA. This position, I believe, not only forces us to gloss over many underlying structural elements of human desire and subjectivity, but is also not beneficial to many learners who, like Shun and Yasunari, may need serious help in dealing with emotional problems which could lead to disasters in an SA situation. But even for students will less serious issues, conducting pre- and post-SA counseling and group discussion sessions could be beneficial for working through questions they might have about why they have decided to participate in an SA program.

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Neuroplasticity in the SLA Classroom: Connecting Brain Research to Language Learning

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Modern advances in the scientific field of neuroplasticity can complement our knowledge of what we know about SLA. Through familiarizing ourselves with key theories in both SLA theory and neuroplasticity, we can examine what is compatible and comparable. In this paper, I define what a communicative language classroom is and how knowledge of neuroplasticity can enhance the SLA classroom. Synaptogenesis, synapses, selective attention, UG Hypothesis, Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, automaticity, connectionism, structured focus, and Interaction Hypothesis are examined and how they relate to each respective field is explained.

現代の科学分野における神経可塑性についての研究は発展しており、この研究成果が第二言語習得(SLA)理論に関する理解に繋がることが期待されている。神経可塑性とSLA理論の両分野における重点を理解することで、両者の適合性や類似性を検証する。さらには、コミュニケーションに重きを置いた言語習得とは何か、また神経可塑性についての知識がどのようにSLA理論の習得に役立つかを明らかにする。シナプス形成、シプナスの実体、選択的注意、普遍文法仮説、習得－学習仮説、自動化、コネクショニズム、焦点構造、さらには、相互交流仮説を全て検証した上で、それらがどのように互いの分野で関連付けられるかを検証する。

Are there any scientific studies that we can use to link what we know works in the classroom with what actually happens in the brain? Modern advances in the scientific field of neuroplasticity can complement our knowledge of what we know about SLA. For language teachers, there is a lack of research connecting these two fields. This paper will address this connection, and address whether knowledge of current studies in neuroplasticity can enhance our knowledge scientifically of what we know about SLA.

In this paper I will examine current studies in neuroplasticity and how they relate to SLA. I will then examine key theories in SLA and how they might connect to what we know about neuroplasticity. Next I ask, what key features make up a communicative SLA classroom? Finally, I will question if this link is strong enough for language educators to examine further.

Neuroplasticity Findings Most Applicable to SLA

This section will address key components from within the field of neuroplasticity. Through this we can connect the findings to language acquisition.

What is Neuroplasticity?

Neuroplasticity refers to the ability of the brain to structurally change in relation to input from the environment (Shaw & McEachern, 2012). This challenges the theory that the brain loses plasticity for language learning past a critical period during early childhood. The brain actually undergoes continuous change and is able to form new synapses well into adulthood. Schwartz and Begley (2002) referred to the wholesale remapping of neural real estate. We can rewire our minds. The brain has the ability to remake itself throughout our adult life, not only from outside stimuli, but also in response to direct mental effort. In this paper I will apply those findings to second language acquisition.

Current Tools for Brain Mapping

The two most common types of brain mapping tools are Positron Emission Tomography scans (PETs) and functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI). They are used to measure the change in blood flow in relation to neural activity in the brain or spinal cord (Pinker, 2007). Since the 1990s, fMRI's are the preferred method, as they are less invasive without the risk of radiation, unlike PETs. Additionally, MRIs use a computer algorithm to reconstruct images of a living section of the brain. With these tools, neurobiologists can see what parts of a person's brain are active when they are reading, writing, speaking, and listening (Kandel & Hawkins, 1992).

Pioneering Brain Studies

Neurosurgeons, who focused on removing brain tissue to cure epilepsy or brain tumors, were the first to map out the brain through a "cortical stimulation map" (Calvin & Ojemann, 1994). During these operations, they found that by stimulating certain areas of the conscious, exposed brain, one could disrupt functions like repeating or completing a sentence, naming an object, or reading a word. Through this, they were able to inadvertently study the relation between brain and language. Penfield (1978) was a pioneer in this method, and Ojemann followed up on these methods.

The Brains of Bilingual Speakers

In a study by Kim, Relkin, Lee, and Hirsh (1997), an fMRI study was conducted on six early bilinguals, who had learned their L2 as young children, and six late bilinguals, who had learned their L2 in adulthood. They discovered the late bilinguals' L1 grammar and phonology motor maps in the Broca's Area, where speech production occurs, had developed in close proximity to each other, whereas those of their L2 developed in a separate area. This implied that the L1 had already been fully connected and mapped out before the L2 was acquired. However, the early bilinguals did not have two separate regions for the different languages. Their brains mapped out both languages in the same area. However, for both groups, the Wernicke's area, the place where the names of things are retrieved, was in a similar location. Essentially, late bilinguals have a separate space in the brain for L2 grammar, rules, and structure. The researchers concluded that the brain needs to map out these new grammatical language areas if the brain's language networks have already been mapped out with only an L1 as a young child.

This ties in with Kuhl's (1998) *native magnet theory*, which refers to the synapses that infants create to establish their first language. There is a *universal perception*, when a newborn is open to all languages, and a *language-specific perception*, when the infant maps out the acoustic dimensions of speech, while producing a network to perceive language. Once this network is formed, language-specific filters make it more difficult to learn an L2, as the L2 must be mapped out in a different location (Bosch, Costa,

& Sebastian-Galles, 2000). All of this ties into plasticity, as it is more difficult, but not impossible.

Synaptogenesis

At birth, there are trillions of neurons in a human brain, but none of them are connected. However, until the age of 3, human brains constantly form neuron connections, or synapses, in what is called *synaptogenesis*. These synapses create three times more activity than in the brain of an adult. They will continue until the age of puberty, and then the excessive connections not used will be pruned off (Kuhl, 2002).

Doidge (2007) stated "if we stop exercising our mental skills, we do not just forget them; the brain map space for those skills is turned over to the skills we practice instead" (p. 59). Therefore, the more we use and practice the L2 we want to learn, the more brain map space is allocated to it. The less we use our L2, the more brain map space goes to other activities that we practice more.

Synapses

This elasticity in brain map-space was first discovered by Canadian psychologist Donald Hebb (1949), who observed that "any two cells or systems of cells that are repeatedly active at the same time will tend to become 'associated,' so that activity in one facilitates activity in the other" (p. 70). Later this theory was entitled Hebbian Plasticity and popularly paraphrased into "cells that fire together, wire together" (Schwartz & Begley, 2002, p. 107; Doidge, 2007, p. 64). Essentially, this implies that postsynaptic neurons are bound together by a neurotransmitter glutamate. As these are used more, there is an increase in synaptic strength. Changes in long-term memory occur by stimulating the same chain of neurons over and over (Schwartz & Begley, 2002).

When language acquisition occurs, there is "a learned response that has been built up through the consistent mapping of the same input to the same pattern of activation over many trials" (McLaughlin & Heredia, 1996, p. 214). This is a strengthening of the synapses, which strengthens our capabilities in the target language.

Adult Language Learning

Adult second language learners must rely on declarative memory or explicit knowledge to compensate for what infants can acquire effortlessly. They can apply cognitive thinking to assign and make sense of grammatical structures (Paradis, 2004). The human brain undergoes cognitive adaptation to accommodate the L2 by recruiting existing regions used for the L1, or it can recruit adjacent areas of the cortex (Coggins, Kennedy, & Armstrong, 2004). Neuroimaging studies show an actual structural shift in the brain in response to acquiring an L2 as an adult (Mechelli, et al., 2004).

For L2 learners, there is direct evidence that when learning occurs over time, neurochemical communication between neurons is facilitated. This implies that less input is required to activate established connections (Genesee, 2000). The brain learns how to differentiate the sounds of the L2 that correspond to the correct words. Neural connections in turn reflect this learning process and create circuits that associate a visual image with the sound of the word. In early stages of learning, these neural circuits are weak or incomplete. As exposure is repeated, less input is needed to activate the entire neural network. Eventually, activation and recognition are nearly automatic.

An interesting related study was done by Maguire, et al. (2000), in which they studied the brains of taxi drivers by using brain scans. They then plotted the differences between the relative experience of the drivers. They found that the more experience a taxi driver had navigating the roads of London, the larger the hippocampus in the brain was to record this information. Acquiring navigational skills caused a stronger, thicker grey matter in this part of the brain. This was another study that showed the brain is neuroplastic and able to learn well into adulthood.

Selective Attention

Desimone, a leading researcher in the physiology of attention, explained that selective attention can strengthen or weaken neural processing in the visual cortex (Desimone, 1998). fMRI scans show that neurons fire more actively when engaged in paying attention to a particular task. Robertson (1999) stated that attention can sculpt brain activity by increasing or decreasing the rate at which particular sets of synapses fire. Therefore attention is an important ingredient in neuroplasticity as it causes a set of synapses to grow stronger.

A group of researchers led by Passingham studied PET scans of a man's attention as he tried to figure out a sequence on a keypad (Jueptner, et al., 1997). Through this activity, his brain was lit up with activity, particularly in the areas associated with planning, thinking, and moving. Once he worked out the sequence, and he could do it effortlessly, a change was marked in his brain. Only the motor regions that commanded his fingers to move remained active. In short, paying attention involves the brain, increases learning and recall, and helps commit things to memory.

In conclusion, there are many connections between neuroplasticity and second language acquisition. This review of relevant research demonstrates how the mind neurologically acquires language through repetition, selective attention, and focus.

SLA Theory Most Applicable to Neuroplasticity

This section will examine key SLA theories and how they might be connected to what we have learned about neuroplasticity.

Access to the Universal Grammar Hypothesis

Universal Grammar (UG) is a theory that holds that language is innate in newborns (Chomsky, 1960s/2006). Children acquire language naturally; however, once an individual passes a certain age, it is no longer easy to acquire language.

White's (1989) theory claimed that innate language facility is operational in SLA as well; it just constrains the grammar. It is an opposing theory to the *Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* that holds that adults and children have fundamental differences in acquiring language (Bley-Vroman, 1989). White outlines five possibilities in regards to the availability of UG for L2 learners. She resorts to two variables, transfer and access, and outlines how some forms of UG are available to adult L2 learners from these variables. This theory coincides with neuroplasticity, in that our brain is continually malleable and able to learn new things well into adulthood.

Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

Krashen (1982) spoke about two ways people acquire language. One was through acquisition or informally "picking up" a language. The second was through formal learning of a language. In the former instance, the learners are not consciously aware of the rules of the language as they acquire it. This is often the case with very young learners. However, in the latter case, the learners are consciously familiarizing themselves with the rules and becoming metalinguistically able to discuss them. In Krashen's theory, it would be this second way in which the concepts of neuroplasticity are applicable to the acquisition of language skills in an L2.

Automaticity and Restructuring

McLaughlin (1990) discussed two points that are fundamental in L2 use, automaticity and restructuring. Automaticity refers to control over one's linguistic knowledge. Learners must combine skills from perceptual, cognitive, and social domains, and routinely use them in their L2. It is "a learned response that has been built up through the consistent mapping of the same input to the same pattern of activation over many trials" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 134). Restructuring refers to organizing that knowledge to internalize it. Using these two fundamental points, students should be practicing and organizing their language skills, in order to retain their L2.

Connectionism

Gass and Selinker (2001) discussed the theory of connectionism. It is consistent with neural pathways but uses different terminology. It concerns biological pathways that are strengthened or weakened by use. Learning takes place in associations, and associations are from exposure to repeated patterns. The more often the association is made, the stronger the learning network becomes.

Structured Focus and Interaction

Mackey (1999) researched learners of English in relation to communication tasks and interaction with others. In those studies it was found that learners who were more involved in structure-focused interaction were able to move further along a development path in English than those who were not. Interaction with others increased their development.

It is also to be noted from Mackey's studies that development stages could not be skipped. But the ability of students with a structured focus and interaction with the language increased more quickly than did the ability of those students without such focus and interaction.

Interaction Hypothesis

Long (1996) developed the Interaction Hypothesis. Essentially, he believed that learning takes place through interaction. There is a negotiation for meaning that takes place, which triggers interactional adjustments. Interaction facilitates learning as it involves selective attention, input, output, and internalizing.

There are other studies by Gass and Varonis (1989) that show that learners do not pick up errors from one another. Learners use positive evidence to strengthen their knowledge. Essentially, the more practice and the more interaction that there is while using the target language, the stronger the awareness of the language will become.

Selective Attention

From the heart of the interaction hypothesis, Long (1996) discussed the importance of selective attention. Attention combined with negotiation are the two most crucial elements in the process of learning a language. This ties in with our knowledge of brain studies, in that as we pay attention to certain things, our brains and neurons become active and strengthened, and this therefore increases our knowledge and awareness.

The Communicative Classroom

Now that we have connected SLA theories and neuroplasticity, how is this applicable for teachers within the EFL classroom? There are many key components necessary for teachers to create an interactive, communicative classroom. The following suggestions can strengthen the neural connections within their students' L2 brains.

Fluency Building

Fluency building tasks help students increase their ability to speak the target language. Speaking more fluently can only be developed through practice (Nation & Newton, 2008).

Additionally, fluency and using language can create stronger synaptic states within your brain, which is instrumental to learning. Research by Montgomery and Madison (2004) identified five states that synapses move between. These states are *active*, *silent*, *recently-silent*, *potentiated*, and *depressed*. Students actively using the language in the classroom will have their synaptic states more active, thereby prepared to readily give language output. In this way, practice is critical to put newly acquired language into our short-term memory, and through strengthening synapses, into our long-term memory.

Approaches Towards the Communicative Classroom

When students do pair work exercises, they are using the communicative approach to learn languages. In this approach they focus on practicing the language by communicating in the target language with others (Lewis & Hill, 1997).

There are a number of communicative approaches to study that would be ideal for this type of teaching. They include the Natural Approach, immersion, task-based learning, and content-based instruction. The common theme among all of these approaches is that "communication is at the heart of language acquisition" (VanPatten, 2003, p, 98). Harmer (2007) also discusses Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The essential tenet in CLT is that students are involved in meaning-focused communicative tasks. All of these approaches and methods have the core belief that interaction promotes acquisition. Interaction heightens learners' awareness of what is missing in their developing systems. It pushes them into being more active with their input processing (VanPatten, 2003).

Language Acquisition in the Classroom

VanPatten and Cadierno (1993) argued that beginning language learners need structured input activities that enable them to focus on meaning while they pay attention to form. This will allow them to use the language to produce output. Structured input implies that acquisition is not driven by explicit rules, but by interaction with input data (VanPatten, 2003).

As learners create structured sentences to express meaning to someone else, their output becomes input for others. Language acquisition occurs when language learners are exposed to communicative input and must process it. The brain organizes the data they receive. Learners must acquire output procedures and they need to interact with other speakers.

To maximize the variety of input, it is vital to change speaking partners in the language classroom often. Maher (2011, 2012) surveyed students about changing partners often in the language-oriented classroom. According to the results of the surveys, most students believed that talking to various partners, particularly people they did not know, encouraged them to listen more attentively and participate more in conversation, thereby increasing their language abilities. They also felt they could hear and share more opinions through practicing language with various classmates than by talking to the same students regularly. In short, it increased the variety of input.

Vygotsky (1930s/1978) proposed the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). A learner's language performance with others exceeds what the learner is able to do alone. Through interaction with others, learners progress to their greater potential. Problem solving under guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers increases their performance.

Routines

Lastly, students should be exposed to the usage of what Yorio (1980) called routines. These are words, phrases, or sentences that are predictable in a typical communicative situation by members of a speech community. They may include situational phrases such as "You had to be there" when relating a humorous story or "Dearly beloved" in a ceremonial ritualistic interaction (Shrum & Glisan, 2005).

Taylor (2002) calls these routines *gambits*, or devices that help the speaker maintain the smooth flow of conversation. This includes all turn-taking queues, pause fillers, set phrases, expressions to buy time, and so forth. These many conversational strategies can be taught, but through interaction and using the language, they can be acquired and adapted.

These routines or gambits allow students to sound more natural to native speakers, and increase their confidence and ability to acquire their L2, as well as to gain more input and give out more output—all of which increases their neural networks in relation to using the target language.

Conclusion

In conclusion, reviewing the research of both SLA and studies in neuroplasticity, we find there is a connection between the two. We can incorporate this knowledge of neuroplasticity and make it applicable for our classrooms as language teachers. Through encouraging active participation, using the target language, and strengthening neural pathways, we can implement this awareness into our own teaching.

I began by asking if these two fields were compatible and complimentary. I believe that they are, and there is much that can be learned from connecting them. Further research should be done about connecting them, and this could enhance our knowledge of SLA.

Bio Data

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Possible L2 Selves for Students of Science and Engineering

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Reliance on effective use of English for international collaborative endeavors permeates all science and engineering (S&E) fields—domains of research and development and production that hold a key intellectual resource for saving our planet from many problems it is facing. But S&E students in Japan lack motivation to learn English, although they are very much aware that English abilities are valued in scientific communities and will be needed for success in their future careers. Particularly deficient are these students' abilities to imagine themselves using English in the future, a deficiency associated with feelings of present incompetence and incuriosity about making friends in communities that use English. This paper summarizes 3 studies designed to investigate the interplay of psychological factors leading to these motivational deficiencies and offers teachers examples for countering this dilemma in their classrooms.

理工系の分野は、直面している数々の問題から地球を救うために必要な重要な知的資源を有する研究・開発・生産の領域であり、そのすべての分野で、国際的な共同活動のために英語が上手に使用できることが求められている。しかし、日本の理工系の学生は、英語が社会的に重要とされ、将来仕事で成功するために必要であると認識しているものの、それを学ぶ動機づけに欠けている。特に、将来自分自身が英語を使っている姿を想像する能力が不足しており、それは、英語を使う集団と交流を深めるための能力や関心のなさという気持ちに関連する欠乏点となっている。この論文ではこれらの動機づけ不足の背景にある心理的な要因の相互作用を探求した3つの研究をまとめ、教師が教室でこの問題にどのように対処すべきかを議論する。

From a survey of over 17,000 scientists in 16 countries, it was concluded that, "Japan is the most insular country surveyed, exchanging relatively little scientific talent with the rest of the world" (King, 2012, p. 56). Moreover, Japanese universities dropped in the rankings of The Times Higher Education World University Rankings, with its editor being quoted, "There's a sense that Japan is perhaps isolated on the world stage, in terms of international collaboration in research and also in terms of international student recruitment" ("Todai is No. 1," 2012). While many reasons may be found for this apparent isolation, perhaps a proximal cause is a lack of English abilities, something that can be addressed in education for students in science and engineering (S&E) fields so that they may enter the workforce more capable than their predecessors for connecting with the world.

Little research to date has examined L2 motivation of S&E students, despite the importance of long-term motivation for eventual language acquisition (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The aim of this paper is to begin such an examination by providing a summary of three studies designed to identify the relationships between various L2 motivational variables influencing S&E students' motivation to learn English.

English Dominance in S&E Study Fields

English is widely accepted today as the language of science. The fact that more nonnative speakers (NNS) than native speakers (NS) use English for scientific communication (Mauranen, 2003) should come as no surprise in today's globalized world. Scientific collaboration has long been known to lead to productivity (Price & Beaver, 1966). In a globalized world, research and development cannot exist without collaborative and cooperative networks (Kuemmerle, 1997). The domination of English (Grabe, 1988), however, has implications for S&E students who experience difficulty communicating in English as their L2.

English Needs in Globalized Industries

Many S&E students in Japan seek out and land jobs at what they see as stable Japanese technology-based companies, but many of these are not Japanese companies. They are multinational corporations, operating globally, in which English plays a key role in information exchange and where many scientists and engineers are employed.

Considering the global influence of multinational corporations, environmental protection, trade agreements, megaprojects, disaster relief, and the research and development behind it all, it is no exaggeration that the motivation of S&E students to learn English is therefore crucial to improving the quality of life on our planet by learning from, collaborating with, and contributing to the wider world. Becoming proficient in English is vital not just for the individual student's professional success, but also for the successful adaptations, adoptions, and affordances of leading-edge science and technologies that support the health and welfare of the global community.

Why, then, do S&E majors fail to show the necessary motivation to learn English? Data comparing attitudes of English and science university majors in Japan (Life, Falout, & Murphey, 2009) indicated that science students did not like speaking English in class as much as English majors, were less comfortable using English outside class, and were less likely to consider their English education as good. Apple, Falout, and Hill (in press) included data (derived from the data set in Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009) that indicate Japanese S&E majors are more likely to be at risk of demotivation than other majors. From their experiences prior to university, S&E majors (compared with non-S&E majors) were less likely to have felt rapport with their English teachers, less likely to have enjoyed dissecting grammar and memorizing vocabulary, more likely to have avoided learning English, more likely to have blamed themselves for their mistakes and poor performance, less likely to have valued their English education, and more likely to have thought they had been studying at the wrong course level.

Additionally, S&E majors share a prevalence of instrumental motivation. Examples come from Bangladesh (Rahman, 2005), China (Yu, 2012), Japan (Johnson & Johnson, 2010; Kaneko & Kawaguchi, 2010), Malaysia (Rahman, Rahman, & Subramaniam, 2012), Spain (Bobkina & Fernandez de Caleya Dalmau, 2012), Taiwan (Fan & Feng, 2012), Turkey (Kirkgoz, 2005), and Yemen (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2009). This poses a potential stumbling block for entering the global workforce. On the other hand, integrative reasons for learning a foreign language lead to better language performance and longer lasting language motivation (Gardner, Masgoret, & Tremblay, 1999).

Viable Frameworks for L2 Motivation

There are three extant theoretical models of L2 motivation that could explain difficulties S&E students in Japan face when trying to maintain motivation to learn English: the *socioeducational model*, *self-determination theory*, and the *L2 motivational self system*.

Socioeducational Framework

Drawing from studies related to the socioeducational model (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997), Masgoret and Gardner (2003) conducted a large-scale meta-analysis examining five components of the model: integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation or motivational intensity, integrative orientation, and instrumental orientation. Masgoret and Gardner concluded that all five of these variables correlate positively to L2 achievement for a wide variety of L2s and in many countries. But in an EFL context such as Japan, in which no obvious L2 language community exists with which to identify or integrate (Gardner, 2001), integrativeness may seem to be irrelevant (Ushioda, in press). Therefore, other constructs now describe motivational orientations for learners who seem not to have immediate access to or control of the L2 culture such as *international posture* (Yashima, 2010), which is a kind of readiness for joining L2-speaking *imagined communities* (Norton & McKinney, 2011). Another type of desire to connect to, not integrate with, the greater outside world has been identified as *intercultural friendship* (Yashima, 2002) or similarly what we call in our studies presented below, *international friendship*. The sense of community or desire for friendship may inform not only the sense of an L2 self, but also may be related to a feeling of competence or anxiety toward L2 communication.

Self-Determination Theory

The need for social relatedness especially in Japan shares importance with the need to feel competent within a social community. These needs form the key elements of the *self-determination theory* (SDT) of human motivation: autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When a sense of belonging to a particular group or community is combined with a feeling of lessened anxiety or nervousness and the sense of perceived competence in using the L2, learners may develop confidence in communicating in their L2. In other words, SDT may help explain whether learners perceive themselves as capable L2 users now, self-beliefs which can have an influence on their development as L2 communicators.

L2 Motivational Self System

A recent model of L2 motivation derived from *possible selves* theory of mainstream psychology (Markus & Nurius, 1986) is the *L2 motivational self system* (Dörnyei, 2009). Possible selves are future self guides that share three components: the person that learners would like to become, might become, and are afraid of becoming. In the mainstream psychology model, the possible selves can be identified as an *ideal self*, a *probable self*, and a *feared self*, respectively, and act as a motivational bridge between self-concept and behavior. Dörnyei's model (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) depicts motivation as guided by three components. The first is the Ideal L2 Self, or the learner as a person who is a fluent L2 speaker. The second is the Ought-to L2 Self, or the learner endeavoring to avoid becoming a negative self-image (e.g., someone who fails English class). The third component is the L2 experience within the immediate learning environment, which most impacts on cognitive processes that lead to behavioral patterns. The Ideal L2 Self is generally seen as the most formative aspect of L2 identity, positively influencing lasting motivation, whereas the Ought-to L2 Self involves avoidance of negative outcomes, such as bad grades, which instead fosters motivation that is short-lived.

Our Studies of Motivation in S&E Students

This paper will attempt to investigate the relationships, patterns, integrations, consistencies, and inconsistencies in S&E students' motivational components to learn EFL. We seek to understand their attitudes, beliefs, and aspirations not only personally but as contributors to a world that needs their ideas, contributions which cannot be made without communicative English abilities. For developing our own structural equation model (SEM), we adopted, adapted, combined, and otherwise revised the motivational components described above in the three frameworks of motivation in a way that we felt related to a motivational interface between classroom EFL learning and real-world use. As we tested and developed the individual questionnaire items and whole model, some factors were dropped or their relationships to each other were revised, which we will describe in part briefly in each summary below. The following three summaries include results from a study concerning technical college students at one school, a follow-up with undergraduate and graduate students at three schools, and a study in progress comprising students from 20 high school, undergraduate, and graduate school institutions across Japan.

Study 1 Summary

The first study (Apple, Falout, & Hill, 2012) examined the L2 motivation of 395 students at one technical college (*kosen*). Participants completed a 45-item questionnaire measuring nine separate hypothetical constructs such as perceived speaking competence, perceptions of supportive social conditions, and the presence of possible selves. Descriptive statistics (Table 1) indicated participants had a moderate desire to communicate in English to meet new people (*International friendship*) and that they perceived the necessity of using English in their career (*Ought-to L2 self*); they had, however, felt discouraged by their English classroom atmosphere (*Classroom atmosphere*), were largely uninterested in English-speaking cultures and associated media (*Interest in English-speaking culture*), and did not perceive themselves as active or capable users of the language (*Perceived speaking competence*).

Table 1. Composite Mean Index Scores of L2 Motivational Factors for Japanese Technical College Students

Factors	k	α	M	SD
Classroom atmosphere	4	.82	2.58	1.44
Speaking anxiety	4	.83	3.60	1.60
Social value of speaking English	4	.69	4.05	1.40
Perceived speaking competence	4	.85	2.86	1.42
Interest in English-speaking culture	4	.75	2.87	1.55
International friendship	8	.92	3.65	1.65
Ideal L2 self	3	.62	3.15	1.38
Probable L2 self	5	.72	3.74	1.47
Ought-to L2 self	4	.61	3.79	1.53

Notes. A Likert scale of 1 = *weak* to 6 = *strong* was used; k = number of items; α = Cronbach's alpha; N = 395 (adapted and expanded from Apple, Falout, & Hill, 2012).

Data were analyzed for construct validity, then fit to a hypothetical structural equation model postulating relationships and influences among the variables. The final model (Figure 1) demonstrated strong relations among several variables, most notably those leading to Ideal L2 Self (*Classroom atmosphere, Interest in English culture, International friendship*) and Ought-to L2

Self (*Perceived social values*, *Probable L2 self*). Contrary to expectations, Ought-to L2 Self, rather than Ideal L2 Self, emerged as the final outcome variable.

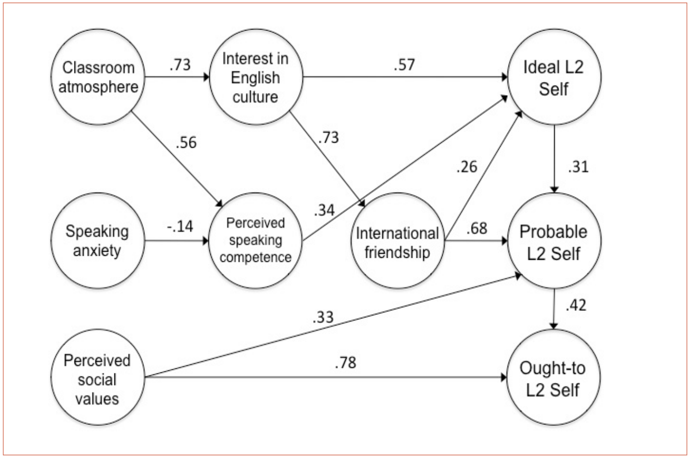

Figure 1. Structural regression model of motivational factors for Japanese technical college students, based on Apple, Falout, and Hill (2012), with the L2 Motivational Self System variables as outcome variables (RMSEA = .07, 95% CI .073-.079). *N* = 395. The strengths of the paths are listed in beta weights (β).

A multiple regression was conducted using the three possible selves variables as independent predictor variables, with English achievement measured by self-reported TOEIC scores as the dependent outcome variable ($n = 317$). Results revealed that Ideal L2 Self predicted TOEIC scores, $F(3,316) = 7.56$, $R^2 = .07$, $p < .001$. Thus, despite Ought-to L2 Self emerging as the strongest motivating factor (Figure 1), students with a stronger sense of Ideal L2 Selves displayed better English abilities.

Study 2 Summary

The second study (Apple, Falout, & Hill, in press) extended the first study by including a larger questionnaire, with 57 items measuring 10 separate constructs, adding *Attitudes toward English* and re-naming *International friendship* as *Desire to speak English*. Study 2 also included a larger sample size to improve external validity, with 654 students from three different institutes, comprising 17 disciplines (Appendix). Construct reliabilities improved slightly from those of Study 1, with reliability estimates ranging from $\alpha = .72$ to $\alpha = .87$. Data were fit to the existing model in Study 1, with the addition of one new construct, *Attitudes toward English* (Figure 2). The results showed the increased influence of the desire to speak or participate in an international community (*International friendship* in Study 1, *Desire to speak English* in Study 2) upon the sense of an Ideal L2 Self (β = .26 in Study 1, and β = .48 in Study 2). *Classroom atmosphere* remained a crucial influence on perceptions of speaking competence and maintaining interest in cultural aspects of English. Notably, the Ought-to L2 Self, rather than the Ideal L2 Self, remained the most important Possible Self as the final outcome variable.

As a final analysis, two ANOVA were conducted. In the first, the independent variable was the current year in school of the participant, and the dependent variable was the outcome variable of the model, Ought-to L2 Self. Results showed no significant differences among the groups. The second ANOVA had the same dependent variable, but the independent variable was what final level of education that participants *intended* or *hoped to achieve*. This question split the participants ($N = 517$) into four groups, based on what degree they hoped for: junior college, undergraduate, master's, and doctorate. Significant differences with a small effect size were found among the four groups, $F(3) = 3.60$, $p = .013$, $\eta^2 = .02$. A post hoc analysis determined which groups were significantly different; depending on whether the final hoped-for degree was a junior college or a master's degree, participants showed significantly different Ought-to L2 Selves with a moderate effect size, $t = -3.45$, $p = .007$, $d = -.38$, $r = -.19$. Thus, rather than the students' *current* year in school, the students' *imagined* or *hoped-for* final goal in educational level was significant in determining their positive sense of possible selves as users of English.

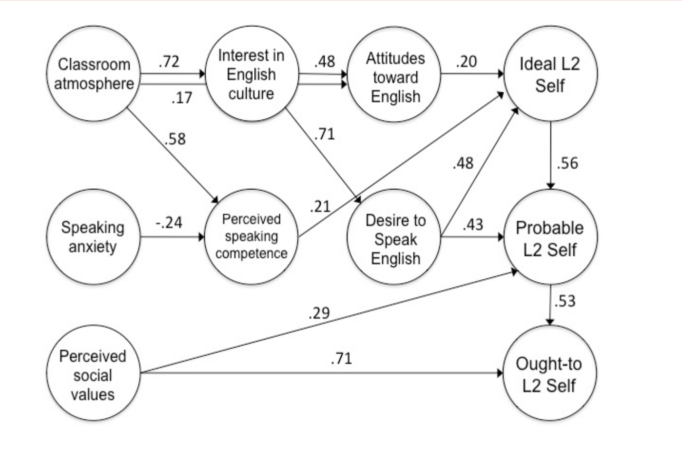

Figure 2. Final structural regression model, based on Apple, Falout, and Hill (in press), with Ought-to L2 Self as the outcome variable (RMSEA = .07, 95% CI .068-.072). $N = 654$.

Study 3 Preliminary Results

In the third study, a questionnaire was created using 53 items based on those from Study 1 and Study 2. Items were revised based on the item reliability analysis from Study 2 in order to achieve greater consistency of reliability estimates across factors. The questionnaire was then piloted ($N = 304$); based on preliminary item and factor analysis, the number of items was further reduced to 48 and the translations of five items were slightly modified. Questionnaires were sent to 20 Japanese institutions with S&E programs. A total of 2,503 responses were collected. Self-reported TOEIC scores from 937 students averaged 385 (low 100, high 980, mode = 350).

The questionnaire represented the first step of a multi-stage project; stages two and three are planned for 2013 and 2014.

Preliminary results (Table 2) indicated agreement with both previous studies. As represented in the sample, S&E students across Japan seemed to overall value learning English (*Perceived social value of English*), desired to communicate in English (*International friendship*), and felt that their future careers depend on their English ability (*Ought-to L2 self*). At the same time, they tended to feel anxious about using English (*Speaking anxiety*), felt that they lacked the competence necessary to communicate (*Perceived speaking competence*), perceived lack of support in the classroom (*Classroom atmosphere*), and had little sense of a future identity as a user of English (*Ideal L2 self*). The differences between the Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self of Study 1 and Study 3 are perhaps notable; while the former (*N*-size of 395 at only one school) had a mean value of 3.15 for Ideal L2 Self and 3.79 for Ought-to L2 Self, the latter study (*N*-size of 2,503 students from multiple institutions across Japan) had means of 2.75 for Ideal L2 Self and 4.11 for Ought-to L2 Self. The distance between the image of oneself as an ideal, fluent user of English and as someone who is forced to learn English for material means became more pronounced as we included participants from a wider range of years in school and from a greater breadth of institutions at more diverse academic rankings.

Table 2. Composite Mean Index Scores of L2 Motivational Factors for S&E Students in Japanese Secondary and Tertiary Institutions

Factors	*k*	α	*M*	*SD*
Classroom atmosphere	5	.82	3.22	1.42
Perceived social value of English	5	.73	4.25	1.35
Speaking anxiety	5	.80	3.83	1.48
Interest in English-speaking culture	5	.78	3.22	1.46
Perceived speaking competence	5	.87	2.80	1.35
International friendship	6	.92	3.82	1.63
Ideal L2 self	5	.87	2.75	1.40
Probable L2 self	5	.72	3.63	1.43
Ought-to L2 self	7	.78	4.11	1.44

Notes. A Likert scale of 1 to 6 was used; k = number of items; α = Cronbach's alpha; N = 2,503.

Results from Study 3 are as yet in the preliminary stage, as we are still collecting and entering data. Further investigation will fit the data to the existing model for confirmation. Our current hypothesis is that the sense of an L2 Self is most affected by classroom experiences and the year in school, particularly near the end of formal education when students start job hunting.

Discussion

Across these three studies it seems that many Japanese S&E students very much believe that social values dictate that they become proficient in English for their own future professional success, seen in the strong influence from social values upon the Ought-to Self. But with moderate interest in making friends in English-speaking cultures and poor perceptions of their English classroom experiences, there seems little in students' academic backgrounds to promote positive self-beliefs as future users of English—beliefs which can become self-fulfilling prophecies. It seems that S&E students may not be receiving an education that helps them to connect the social values of English with their professional and personal identities as users of the language.

As for improving classroom atmosphere, teachers may consider employing metacognitive learning strategies so that students are more conscious of their learning (Hiromori, 2004). Helping students to increase motivation and vision of future L2 self images seems possible through learning activities that can stimulate multiple senses within the imagination, particularly approaches that combine visual and auditory learning styles (Dörnyei & Chan, in press). Munezane (2008) reported increased motivation and English skills, critical creative thinking, and ethical awareness in sophomores majoring in science who designed and presented a dream robot and discussed the civil rights of self-conscious robots, a possible social dilemma in the future. Fukada, Fukuda, Falout, and Murphey (2011) demonstrated measurable gains in motivation and self-reported behaviors to learn English after students interacted with classmates through activities that helped them to share their possible selves, such as compiling a list of dream jobs, attending an imaginary 10-year class reunion, and sharing three possible selves. Sampson (2012) reported raised metacognitive awareness of increased motivation towards English from activities which similarly focused upon sharing possible selves within the classroom, such as predicting one's own and other's futures, imagining situations where lack of English caused trouble, and drawing a timeline to one's ideal future, complete with roadblocks and contingencies.

These studies provide examples to help future scientists and engineers envision using English in their futures.

Making further connections from this paper's experimental data involving Japanese S&E students' EFL motivations to specific implications for the classroom is beyond the scope of the design of these investigations. We would, however, like to offer some ideas of what we think might be helpful to improve S&E students' confidence, interests, and imaginations:

- expose students to real-life Japanese scientists and their career situations to become aware of the true need for English in the workplace and to help visualize the potential successes they can achieve;
- demonstrate that nonnative speakers in S&E fields outnumber the native speakers and that they don't need perfect English to communicate;
- provide lessons with career-related applications, including real-life examples of how Japanese company workers use English in their field;
- create opportunities for communication such as email or Skype exchanges, joint problem solving, school visits for topical discussions, or debates with foreign students in similar fields;
- encourage socially interactive learning (group or pair work, presentations, telephone simulations), not just rote learning and memorization;
- integrate students with different majors to broaden their perspective on science and to encourage learning of overlapping academic vocabulary;
- invite students to explain to peers about their study- or work-abroad experiences; and
- help students early in their academic lives to learn what scientific journals are, since they will be told by science teachers to read them before finishing undergraduate school.

Summary

This paper presented three studies developed in succession to establish a viable structural equation model of Japanese S&E students' motivations to learn English. The aggregated findings indicate that students feel they are not getting enough classroom support upon which to base their confidence as EFL speakers. This in turn has negative motivational consequences in that, by and large, students are unable to envision themselves in the future as competent speakers of English. On the other hand, these same students generally perceive that society requires their English abilities, prompting the motivational drive to avoid failing to become proficient in English. Their visions of different aspects of themselves seem to fall in a divide between Ought-to Self and Ideal Self, and thus their motivation to learn English may sway. We will keep asking what academic experiences might make S&E students aware of their situations as soon-to-be scientists facing problems and making solutions related to the welfare of the world.

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Appendix

List of Disciplines of Participants in Study 2

- Mechanical engineering
- Electrical engineering
- System engineering
- Electronics and computer science
- Applied chemistry
- Agriculture
- Architecture
- Civil engineering
- Veterinary science
- Socio-transportation engineering
- Aerospace engineering
- Oceanic architecture
- Precision machinery engineering
- Physics
- Mathematics
- Chemical engineering
- Information science

Pragmatic Competence Through Discourse Analysis

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Reference Data:

Hurrell, I. (2013). Pragmatic competence through discourse analysis. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

This exploratory study evaluated the effectiveness of an experimental course designed to train EFL students from Japanese universities in specially adapted discourse analysis techniques. Questionnaires and individual interviews were used to investigate the extent to which the course would influence the participants' ability to appreciate pragmatic meaning in authentic communication and motivation to use authentic materials to learn English. It was found that the course deepened the participants' appreciation of pragmatic influences on authentic communication as well as appreciably increasing their motivation to use authentic materials to learn English. These findings have several implications for the future of pragmatic language teaching.

この研究は、日本のEFL大学生を対象にディスコース･アナリシスの様々なテクニックを訓練する実験的な講座の有効性を調査したものである。この講座には2つの目的があり、1つ目は、オーセンティックな英語のコミュニケーションの語用論的能力を向上させること、また2つ目は、英語の勉強にオーセンティックな資料を活用するモチベーションを高めることであった。これらの目的を調査するため、アンケートと個別のインタビューを行った。調査の結果は、参加した生徒のオーセンティックな英語のコミュニケーションの語用法に対する理解を深め、オーセンティックな資料を使うモチベーションを高めたことを顕した。この結果は、これからの語用論的能力の教育にいろいろな影響をもつであろう。

With English increasingly being used internationally as a *lingua franca*, there is an ever-growing demand for people who can use English to communicate effectively in real-life situations. However, it has been observed that even advanced language learners often have problems dealing with pragmatic meaning in naturalistic language (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). These problems are often attributed to the fact that learners commonly develop linguistic competence in the absence of pragmatic competence, particularly in spoken communication (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). In this exploratory study, I attempt to address this issue by investigating the effectiveness of an experimental discourse analysis course on 11 EFL students from Japanese universities. This course was designed to improve the participants' ability to appreciate and deal with pragmatic influences on authentic spoken communication by training them in a range of discourse analysis techniques.

A Rationale for Training Language Learners in Discourse Analysis

The use of discourse analysis methodology in ELT is still in its relative infancy but some notable work has been done into the use of discourse analysis to develop pragmatic competence in language learners. Two notable examples of books focusing on the applications of discourse analysis in ELT are *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers* (McCarthy, 1991) and *Pragmatics: Teaching Speech Acts* (Tatsuki & Houck, 2010). These texts provide a useful resource for creating more pragmatically appropriate materials and interesting activities to develop pragmatic competence in language learners. However, several problems are apparent in current approaches.

Firstly, a bottom-up approach tends to be taken by focusing on individual speech acts and providing examples of how they are performed. However, it has been noted that speech acts are rarely performed individually, but occur in conjunction with other speech acts as part of more complex interactions (Murray, 2009). Consequently, by focusing on individual speech acts, we risk giving students a narrow view of the communicative process (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991; Murray, 2009). Secondly, these approaches can be susceptible to being influenced by teacher intuitions, as they rely on the teacher to select language which reflects their idea of appropriate models of speech (Crystal & Davy, 1975; Gilmore, 2007; McCarthy, 1991). Finally, even though current pragmatic materials focus on having students consider contextual influences on speech, the lack of emphasis on sociocultural influences on communication has been noted (Gilmore, 2007). This may be due to the fear that the use of unfamiliar, culturally-laden language in authentic materials may result in culture shock that might negatively affect the learning process (Alptekin, 1993; Martinez, 2002; Prodromou, 1988). Although explicit awareness-raising activities can play an extremely useful role in the development of pragmatic competence, bottom-up approaches alone seem insufficient for developing a strong pragmatic competence in language learners.

Aims and Research Question

Taking these issues into consideration, the primary aim of this experimental course was to gradually introduce the participants to adapted discourse analysis techniques so that they might be able to use them with authentic materials to develop their awareness of the importance of pragmatic influences on communication and their ability to deal with pragmatic meaning in authentic language. The second aim was to increase the participants' motivation to use authentic materials by providing them with a pragmatic "tool kit" which they could apply to any authentic materials they may use in the future (Murray, 2009).

Considering these aims, the following research question guided this study:

> To what extent was the course successful in achieving the two pedagogic goals of:
>
> a) increasing the participants' appreciation of pragmatic influences on authentic language, and
>
> b) increasing the participants' motivation to use authentic materials to learn English?

Participants

Due to practical constraints, recruiting participants for the study was problematic. Five universities were approached in Sapporo, Hokkaido, from which 11 learners were willing to give up 5 weeks of their free time to participate in the study. Linguistic ability levels varied greatly throughout the group.

Although this sample was far from ideal, the diverse nature of the participants meant that it was possible to collect rich and varied qualitative data from a number of different perspectives.

Therefore, for the requirements of an initial exploratory study, this sample was deemed satisfactory.

Course Design

A task-based language teaching (TBLT) methodology was used for the design of the course. TBLT was chosen for its compatibility with research findings on language learning that suggest that tasks encourage the cognitive processes and operations necessary for the effective acquisition of new skills, as well as the development of intrinsic motivation within the learner (Ellis, 2003; Long & Crookes, 1992). In addition, TBLT's learner-centred approach allows content to be organised by the needs of the learners as individuals in the learning situation (Brindley, 1989). Table 1 summarises how this approach was employed.

The course consisted of four sessions held over 4 weeks: an opening 90-minute orientation session to introduce the course and three 120-minute core units. Unit 1 was designed to introduce Searle's (1969) Speech Act Theory and Grice's (1975) work on the Cooperative Principle and Conversational Maxims. The main aim of the unit was to raise the participants' awareness of the various ways that a speech act can be performed in different contexts. Particular emphasis was made on indirectness in speech acts as it has been suggested that language learners have particular difficulty with deciphering illocutionary meaning in authentic communication (Tatsuki & Houck, 2010). In addition, Grice's Conversational Maxims of Relevance, Quality, Quantity, and Manners (Grice, 1975) were introduced to highlight the importance of cooperation in communication and how communication can break down if these maxims are not adhered to.

Units 2 and 3 introduced adapted elements of Gee's (2011) Language in Use model of discourse analysis. Unit 2 was designed to focus on three of Gee's seven internal influences on communication: Significance, Identities, and Relationships (Gee, 2011). The aim of this unit was to build upon the skills introduced in the first unit and also to encourage a deeper appreciation of how contextual factors can influence the way speech acts are performed. Examples covered included how people can use language in different ways to construct their own identities and how people use language in different ways depending on their relationship with their interlocutor.

Table 1. Structure of Course Units

Stage	Description
Pretask	Participants are introduced to the new discourse analysis elements through a series of audio and visual examples with mini-tasks designed to raise awareness of how those elements can be used to access pragmatic meaning in communication.
Task	Based on pretask input, participants work in pairs to analyse the task clips and answer questions about pragmatic content, such as identifying speech acts within the materials, considering the illocutionary meaning of a specifically highlighted sentence, and using the elements of discourse analysis introduced in that particular unit. Instructor monitors the groups, providing guidance where necessary.
Posttask	Pairs merge into groups of four to compare their findings and present their results. Instructor gives feedback and may present other points of pragmatic interest.

The final unit of the course introduced three of Gee's four external influences on communication: Social Languages, Discourses (renamed here as Non-Linguistic Communication [NLC]), and Intertextuality (Gee, 2011). In order to attempt to address the thorny issue of culturally laden language in authentic materials, examples were examined of how people often use language connected to a social group to construct their identities; how cultural representations connected to one's external appearance and behaviour, such as clothing or gestures, may influence communication; and how background knowledge from a separate source can sometimes be necessary to understand authentic interaction.

Course Materials

Materials for this course consisted of course booklets specifically designed by the author of this study, and audio-visual materials with script booklets that were taken from the American TV situation comedy series *Friends*. Some Japanese language materials were also used in the pretask phase of unit 3 to enable better appreciation of sociocultural influences on communication.

Script booklets were distributed along with the DVDs of the audio-visual clips a week before each unit so that the participants could familiarise themselves with the materials. The course booklets introduced the new elements of discourse analysis for that unit and the main task activities, which used these elements practically to analyse the authentic materials through answering the task questions. An example of these booklets with annotations can be found in the appendices.

As this course took a top-down view of speech acts, it was preferable that the audio-visual clips had a variety of speech acts to make more interesting and challenging analysis tasks. Criteria for the selection of clips included: (a) the capacity to be understood as a lone interaction, (b) the capacity to clearly exemplify the discourse analysis element being focused on, (c) the lack of overtly obscure language which could render the clip impenetrable, and (d) overall entertainment value.

Research Methodology

As this was an exploratory study, I decided that it would be best to take a mixed-methods approach with a strong-qualitative, weak-quantitative focus so I could respond in a flexible way to new details or openings that may emerge during the process of investigation (Dörnyei, 2007).

Data for this study were collected via two data collection instruments. Questionnaires collected quantitative data using 5-point Likert-scale questions and qualitative data via open-ended questions. The participants were encouraged to give detailed answers about their perceptions of the course; therefore, they could answer these questions in English or Japanese. In the final session of the course, a 15-minute interview was also conducted with each participant to obtain additional qualitative data and probe areas of interest identified in questionnaire responses.

Qualitative data were first transcribed and translated, then analysed via a 3-stage iterative process (Dörnyei, 2007). Using the quantitative data as a guide, the qualitative data were first broken into chunks and put into abstract categories. These were then analysed again to identify any interrelationships between categories. Finally, core categories were selected from the analysis to create an overall picture of the effectiveness of the course.

Results and Discussion

The quantitative results of Questions 3 and 4 (see Table 2) of the postcourse questionnaire clearly indicated that the participants perceived that the course had been beneficial to their language learning development:

Table 2. Likert-Scale Results of Questions 3 and 4, N = 11

Question	Scale rating				
	1	2	3	4	5
4. By taking this course, do you feel that you understand more about what is important for effective communication?	0	0	0	5	6
3 By taking this course, do you feel that you want to use authentic materials more to study English in the future?	0	0	0	5	6

Note. 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree

We can see that all the participants perceived that their ability to appreciate and deal with pragmatic meaning in authentic language, as well as their motivation to use authentic materials, had increased after completing the course. Furthermore, responses from the translated qualitative data provide evidence of the development of pragmatic awareness and motivation to use authentic materials among the participants.

Results from the precourse orientation questionnaire suggested that the participants had given little consideration to the importance of pragmatics in effective communication. This lack of awareness was reflected in the postcourse questionnaires and is illustrated by the comments:

- I had never thought of the feelings or situations of the main characters so it was an interesting experience.
- The most important thing was that I had never thought about the meaning hidden in the words until now.
- Even though I understand grammar I have never spoken English while feeling the indirect meaning (I had never tried or even been aware of it).
- I never thought about indirect meaning before, you see. I only studied the textbook so I only thought of the surface meaning. I didn't think about the indirect meaning. In the textbook there isn't a lot of that kind of thing, is there. There is absolutely no feeling of being angry or sad. It was a new experience.

By the comments we can see that many of the participants had rarely, if ever, considered illocutionary meaning, cultural influences, or the pragmatic context when studying English. Some also noticed that the language used in their textbooks was pragmatically impoverished and indicated that they would gloss over pragmatic difficulties when using authentic materials.

However, the participants generally felt that their ability to appreciate pragmatic influences had improved after completing the course. Analysis of the qualitative results revealed three interesting effects. Firstly, there was a range of comments throughout the course that indicated that the participants' ability to appreciate illocutionary meaning in authentic communication had improved:

- I tried to catch all the points of the tasks and understand what the people want to express as well as the surface meaning of the words.
- There were parts that I didn't understand just by watching them at home. I thought that I had to soften (make more flexible) my thinking.
- Until now, I watched dramas and I just watched over parts I didn't understand without caring. Now, I could understand these parts by the things that I studied in this course so when I watch dramas from now on, I feel that I will be able to understand them more deeply.
- I was always catching what [the characters in *Friends*] said so I don't try to understand what they actually want to say so . . . I think now I try to understand what they want to say.

These comments indicate that through using discourse analysis, the participants generally came to appreciate that the language used in authentic spoken communication often cannot be comprehended from a direct, linguistic translation of the text. Consequently, many realized that in order to understand authentic communication it is important to consider the intentions of the speakers and the illocutionary meaning behind their words.

Secondly, there was much evidence indicating the development of the participants' appreciation of sociocultural and contextual influences on communication.

- Understanding the speaker's relationship with their listener and the identity they are trying to portray was very useful for understanding the indirect meaning of both of their conversations.
- After studying and watching the movie in the pretasks, when I watched it again, I realised the NLC and Intertextuality and was surprised by how different it was to watch.
- I thought culture is really deep, you know. If you don't know that then you can't understand it at all. I could understand the meaning of the words but I couldn't understand what they were saying at all. When a funny joke came up, I couldn't understand it at all.
- I didn't know the concept of intertextuality before so now, when I watch movies or some TV drama and of course when I talk with some friends or someone, I sometimes notice it.

This aspect of the course seemed to be the most interesting for the participants. Many reported feeling surprised or even shocked once they started to understand the extent of sociocultural and contextual influences on authentic communication. As a result, many came to realise that much of the language they could not understand and had glossed over in their previous use of authentic materials could be due to these factors.

Unlike illocutionary meaning, it was interesting to observe that the meaning of culturally laden language in the materials was obscure for many of the participants, even with a lot of assistance from the instructor. However, whilst the meaning remained obscure, the participants were able to effectively identify occurrences of intertextuality and social languages by using the discourse analysis elements introduced in unit 3 of the course. This suggests that if learners are able to use discourse analysis in class to identify sociocultural influences on authentic communication, it may also be helpful to prepare them for dealing with problems they may encounter with culturally laden language when communicating in real-life situations.

An unexpected effect of the course was that many of the participants reported noticing similarities between L1 pragmatic considerations employed in their daily lives and those they used when using discourse analysis to attempt the tasks in English.

- It was my first time to watch a DVD while thinking about "Speech Acts" so it was easier to understand the story. This is something I do naturally when I am watching Japanese movies and in my everyday life, so I want to study Discourse Analysis more.
- [I understood] the way of talking to superiors even when there are no honorific forms in English. Metaphorical expressions like Intertextuality are also often used in Japanese so I felt that it holds a very important position in conversation.
- Even though I'm Japanese, I have many things [regarding intertextuality] I can't understand when I watch TV.
- I felt gesture is different from country to country but, after studying discourse analysis, I felt that gesture was social to social, not between the nations. It is young to old and the relationships. Some gestures really look like Japanese ones.

These comments reflect that the participants noticed several pragmatic similarities between their L1 and L2, including the use of honorific and polite forms, the use of metaphor, and the use of gestures. This indicates that as the participants' appreciation of pragmatic influences on communication developed, similarities between the modes of communication of the participants' L1 and L2 seem to become more apparent. Consequently, some reported that they could begin to connect what they had learnt to real-life situations and that the cultural gulf between communicating in their L1 and L2 was not as large as they might have thought. This is an area that would be interesting to investigate further in future studies.

Finally, there was much evidence provided by the participants to indicate that the course was also largely successful in achieving its second goal of increasing the participants' motivation to use authentic materials to learn English.

- I learnt that I could effectively study, even alone, if I use authentic materials.
- The English in textbooks is for Japanese people, it is made easier to understand, but authentic materials are made for native speakers to enjoy so they are very difficult but, if I use them more, I think I can really improve.
- When I watch movies, sometimes I just focus on a particular dialogue scene but I didn't check some speech acts or what this person is trying to say, the background meaning or something. But now I can use the speech acts.
- I thought . . . If I want to skill up my conversation I have to live in another country but I thought that I can study in Japan [with discourse analysis].

Here we can see that after completing the course, the participants felt that they could use the discourse analysis tools they had learnt to appreciate meaning that they might have just glossed over in the past and access pragmatic meaning in naturalistic language. It also seemed to give them a sense that they could use discourse analysis with authentic materials in the future to improve their communicative ability. As a result, many reported that this course had not only had a positive influence on their ability to use authentic materials to learn English but also to enjoy using them in general.

Implications for Pragmatic Language Teaching

The results of this study raise some important implications for the role of discourse analysis in pragmatic language teaching and the way that authentic materials can be used in ELT for improving pragmatic competence.

It was clearly indicated that training learners in discourse analysis techniques can be an effective way to help them develop their pragmatic awareness. The results of this study suggest that by using discourse analysis, learners can gain a deeper, top-down appreciation of the broad, pragmatic influences on authentic communication. Learners can also acquire a set of tools that they can use to access pragmatic meaning in any naturalistic language they might encounter. Consequently, learners can use discourse analysis techniques with authentic materials to help improve their pragmatic competence. At this point, it must be strongly emphasised that this study is not attempting to negate the importance of focused, bottom-up pragmatic teaching approaches. Rather, it suggests that by providing learners with a grounding in discourse analysis techniques, these skills could be used to increase the effectiveness of more focused pragmatic activities. In this way, a combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches to pragmatic language teaching could have great benefits for the development of pragmatic competence in language learners.

This study was largely successful in achieving the goals set out for it. However, if the experimental course used here were to be repeated, there are some improvements that could be suggested. First and foremost, an appropriate amount of time needs to be allocated for any future courses as, after 4 weeks, the course ended just as the participants were starting to get used to identifying speech acts and considering pragmatic meaning. If this study were repeated, it would be preferable for each discourse analysis element to be focused on separately and to have at least two sessions for each element: an analysis session focusing on developing the learners' discourse analysis skills by analysing authentic language, and a practical session where the learners can apply what they have learnt through practical speaking tasks, such as role-plays.

Secondly, during the study, some of the participants mentioned that they would have liked to analyse materials from a variety of different sources. They also found the Japanese language examples used in the pretask stage of unit 3 to be very useful for understanding more difficult sociocultural elements of discourse analysis, such as Social Languages and Intertextuality. A longer time frame for the course would allow for flexibility to use a wider variety of materials from both the learners' L1 and L2, and hence would provide a richer learning experience for the participants.

Conclusion

The development of pragmatic competence in language learners is one of the major issues in ELT today, as it has been suggested that even advanced language learners can experience difficulties when dealing with pragmatic meaning when communicating in real-life situations (Blum-Kulka et al, 1989). The experimental course used in this study attempted to address this issue by training a group of university EFL students to use a range of discourse analysis techniques. The findings indicated that through using these elements in a learner-centred environment, the participants were able to acquire a set of tools that they could employ to access pragmatic meaning in authentic materials from a top-down perspective. As a result, the participants felt they were able to gain a deeper appreciation of pragmatic influences on authentic language as well as a higher level of motivation to use authentic materials to learn English.

Bio Data

For the last 5 years, Ian has been head teacher of a private language school in Sapporo, Hokkaido. In April 2013, he became an instructor in the English Discussion Center at Rikkyo University, Tokyo. In 2012, he graduated with distinction with an MA in TEFL/TESL from the University of Birmingham where his main research interests lie in the fields of learner development and pragmatics.

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Appendix A

Example of Mini-Task to Introduce the Concept of Speech Acts

What are speech acts?

This is how we DO things with language, tor example, greeting or requesting.

Activity

How many speech acts can you think of?

Apologizing	Explaining
Complaining	Parting
Inviting	Thanking

We can do speech acts in many ways. We can be:

Polite or rude   Short or long   Direct or indirect

Activity

How many ways can you ask for a pen in Japanese?

Could I borrow a pen?	Pen, Please.
Would you at all mind lending me a pen for a little while?	
I can't find my pen!	Give me a pen now!

Appendix B

Tasks

Example of a script to be used with the main task. Main speech acts are highlighted and identified in parentheses.

Unit 1 – Group 1 – Task 1

[Situation: Ross wants to dress like Santa for his son Ben on Christmas. He goes to the costume rental shop and speaks with the salesman but there are no Santa costumes left.]

Ross: Hey!

Salesman: Hello, sir. You're here to return those pants?

Ross: No, these are my pants.

Salesman: Oh. Okay! How can I help you?

Ross: Well, uh, do you have a Santa-outfit left? (Requesting)

Salesman: Two days before Christmas? Sorry, man. (Refusing) Did you try Costume City?

Ross: Yeah, Yeah. I've tried everywhere. Please, please. I mean, I'll pay extra. (Requesting/pleading)

Salesman: Sorry. But! I do have 74 of them coming back on the 26th. (Refusing)

Ross: Okay look, do-do, you have anything Christmassy? I promised my son, and I really don't want to disappoint him, um, come on, I . . . uh, you gotta have something. (Requesting/pleading)

[Scene: Monica, Chandler, and Phoebe. Monica has just opened the door for Ross who is costumed as an Armadillo. Ben is standing next to her.]

Ross: I'm the holiday armadillo! I'm a friend of Santa's and he sent me here to wish you (points to Ben) a Merry Christmas!

Appendix C

Example of a Task Sheet

Group 1 - Task 1

1. What do you think are the two main speech acts in this clip?
   Requesting / pleading and refusing.
2. What language do they use to perform these speech acts?
   See script in Appendix B.
3. What does the salesman mean when he says "Oh. Okay!"
   He is saying that his pants look strange (like fancy dress costume pants).
4. Were any of the cooperative principles broken?
   There don't seem to be any big problems but the salesman saying "You're here to return those pants" may break the principal of Relevance and definitely causes an awkward situation.
5. Can you find any other speech acts and interesting phrases?
   Christmassy is an interesting word. It is interesting how you can change a noun into an adjective by adding a *y*.

Self-Access Language Learning: Japanese Autonomy

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Reference Data:

Serag, A. (2013). Self-access language learning: Japanese autonomy. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

Students and teachers in Japan have difficulties adapting and integrating autonomy effectively in self-access language learning (SALL) centers. Many Japanese students are not accustomed to working independently due to their inherited cultural values of collectivism, creating the need for teachers to provide guidance as to the use of SALL centers. In this paper I focus on the factors influencing the autonomous practice of 16 self-access language learners at a Japanese university. Data were collected, coded, and analyzed recursively through in-depth semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. Three factors were identified: the interpretations of learner autonomy and SALL concepts, the Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of SALL centers, and the implementation methods of SALL in Japan. Results showed that adapting learner autonomy and SALL concepts is a complex process that differs dramatically across cultures.

日本の学生と教師は、セルフアクセス言語学習センターで効果的に自主性（autonomy）を適応し融合させることに苦労する。多くの日本の学生は、集団行動思考という文化的価値観を受け継いでいるため、自主的に動くことに慣れておらず、セルフアクセス言語学習センターの利用にガイダンスを備える必要がある。この論文では、日本の大学のセルフアクセス言語学習者１６人の、自主的な練習への影響の要因に焦点をあてている。綿密で半構造的なインタビューとアンケートを通してデータを集め、コード化し、帰納的に分析した。そこで3つの要因が明らかになった。まず、学習者の自主性とセルフアクセス学習の概念の解釈、次に、日本人学習者のセルフアクセス言語センターの目的についての確信、最後にセルフアクセス学習の実施方法。更に結果は、学習者の自主性とセルフアクセス学習の概念を適応させる(なじませる）ことが、異なる文化では、劇的に異なる複雑な過程であることが示された。

The ability of self-direction in learning is one of the most necessary factors that learners must have to survive, succeed, and improve on their own (Cross, 1981; Guglielmino & Roberts, 1992). Educators who seek to practice self-directed learning strategies with adult learners need to be concerned about cultural differences among learners; however, little is known about the relationship between self-directed learning readiness and cultural dimension constructs (Braman, 1998).

Self-direction in learning is defined as the learner taking responsibility internally for the learning process (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; Tough, 1979). Self-directed learning requires investigation of learning needs, developing learning goals, identifying resources, selecting appropriate learning strategies, and evaluation of learning outcomes (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991).

Cross (1981) noted that self-directed learning was a concept of deliberate learning in which the individual's main goal is to obtain certain definite knowledge or skills. However, the cultural context shapes the individuals' motivations and strategies to reproduce and transform meanings and resources in order to pursue their goals in society (Cleaver, 2007). Since values are informed by culture, autonomous actions that are value-laden decisions also depend on culture (Kabeer, 2000).

Self-access language learning centers (SALLC) are educational facilities designed for student learning that is at least partially, if not fully, self-directed. These centers are an outgrowth of a style of learning that can go by several names: learner-centered approach, learner autonomy, or self-directed learning. Language practitioners in Japan teach learners who, when faced with the aims, goals, and practices of SALLC, are restricted by the cultural values of collectivism.

This paper indentifies three factors that influence the autonomous practice of Japanese students in Japan: the interpretations of learner autonomy and self-access language learning concepts, the Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of SALLC, and the implementation methods of self-access language learning.

Literature Review

Triandis (1995) defined culture as a memory of the past that influences others and societies, generally from period to period. The memory was considered as a component of the culture, called subjective culture, such as attitudes, beliefs, roles, norms, and values that exist in societies. That is, it is the shared awareness of the social environment (Triandis, 1972). Adult educators should consider culture for developing programs effectively for adult learners. Boone, Safrit, and Jones (2002) stated that culture refers to a body of knowledge, concepts, values, and skills that is produced by a social grouping over a long span of time and has been passed on from one generation to the next. Culture is an all-inclusive phenomenon, consisting of all aspects of the social grouping's environment. It includes language, beliefs, and attitudes, modern or primitive methods of production, the educational system, and all belongings. Culture doesn't consist only of artifacts and material types of possessions. It also includes sets of patterns of behaviors and attitudes that are taught by one generation and are modified by life experiences of each succeeding generation.

Research indicates the effectiveness of moving towards student decision making rather than teacher decision making (Cotterall, 1995; Dickinson, 1995; Gremmo & Riley, 1995; Kember & Gow, 1994; Little, 1995; Victori & Lockhart, 1995). In the SALL mode, students make important decisions regarding the level, speed, and content of their work. Students also have an opportunity to work in their preferred mode, which encourages them to take responsibility for their own learning, thereby helping them to move towards autonomy. Research also suggests that students have distinct learning strategies and learn best when individual differences are taken into consideration (Gremmo & Riley, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991). Given that collectivistic cultures promote harmony and interdependence with a high level of conformity (Bond & Smith, 1996), researchers have not applied their theories into actual practice with all foreign language learners, especially in Japan, where groups or a large number of people may act simultaneously to achieve a goal that differs from what individuals would do acting alone.

Self-Access Language Learning (SALL)

SALL contributes to the development of students as independent thinkers and lifelong learners (Morrison, 2008; Mozzon-McPherson, 2002). Cotterall and Reinders (2001) argued that SALL has the potential to promote learner autonomy in a number of ways. Firstly, it provides equipment and services that allow learners to pursue their own goals and interests while accommodating individual differences in learning style, level, and pace of learning. Secondly, the resources have the capacity to raise learners' awareness of the learning process by emphasizing aspects of the management of learning, such as goal setting and monitoring progress. Thirdly, SALL can act as a bridge between the teacher-directed learning situation, where the target language is studied and practiced, and the real world, where the target language is used as a means of communication. Finally, SALL can promote the learning autonomy of learners who prefer or are obliged to learn without a teacher, by supporting their learning in the absence of an organized language course. In different contexts, "SALL offers degrees of guidance but encourages students to move towards autonomy" (Gardner & Miller, 1997, p. xvii).

Crabbe (1993) stated, "Autonomous learning needs to become a reference point for all classroom procedure." In other words, tasks that are carried out in class need to demonstrate principles about managing learning that can be exploited by learners when they are learning independently. Crabbe argued that there must be a "bridge" between *public domain* learning, which is based on shared classroom activities, and *private domain* learning, which is personal individual learning behavior.

In Japanese SALL contexts, Crabbe's (1993) concept of bridging is particularly important due to cultural and educational experiences of learners. Japanese students tend to be self-critical, blaming themselves for their failures more than admiring themselves for their successes (Kurman, Tanaka, & Elkoshi, 2003). A self-effacing attributional style in turn is known to be negatively related to a number of personality traits, such as self-esteem, and positively related to others, including trait social anxiety (Leary & Kowalski, 1995). Kurman (2001) stated that one who displays one's knowledge is regarded in Japan as immodest. Thus, autonomy in foreign language learning has been presented by researchers in western contexts in a way that is inapplicable to Japanese learners in Japan.

Collectivism refers to a perception of self that is embedded within social roles and social relationships; separate selves are deemphasized with an orientation toward others and the welfare of the group or community. In collectivistic cultures, the person's identity is closely related to his or her social group. The primary goal of the person is not to maintain independence from others, but to promote the interests of the group (Davidson, Jaccard, Triandis, Morales, & Diaz-Guerrero, 1976). Self-esteem is not derived from idiosyncratic behavior or from calling attention to one's own unique abilities. There is greater emphasis on meeting a shared standard so as to maintain harmony in one's relationship to the group (Wink, 1997). People in collectivistic cultures are therefore not motivated to stand out from their group by competitive acts of achievement or even making positive statements about themselves (Kitayama, Markus, & Lieberman, 1995).

Helgesen (1993) reported that his learners in Japanese universities rarely initiated conversation, avoided bringing up new topics, did not challenge the teacher, seldom asked for clarification, and did not volunteer answers. Townsend & Danling (1998), among others, attributed this type of behavior to the anxiety Japanese learners experience when using their L2. Nevertheless, this may have had more to do with the learners' social and cultural codes for speaking. Japanese learners are likely to experience language anxiety in oral EFL classes because they are simply not prepared to deal with the social components of Western-style teaching practices, where a great emphasis is put on individualism, challenging the teacher, and providing original opinions and ideas. In contrast, according to Nozaki (1993), the Japanese think of quietness, obedience, and passivity as good traits for a learner to possess. Traditionally, the method of teaching in Japan is teacher-fronted and unlike western classrooms, little (if any) input is solicited from the student. Students often relate closely with their classroom teacher, and many are unwilling to engage in interactive communication with other foreign teachers.

Research Questions

This paper will answer the following questions:

1. How do Japanese learners perceive learner autonomy and SALL?
2. What are the Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of SALLC?
3. What are the Japanese learners' beliefs about the implementation methods of SALL in Japan?

Methodology

Answers to the study's research questions were sought by a number of different means. Data were collected from 16 randomly selected self-access language learners who were willing to participate in this study using two instruments:

1. an electronically administered questionnaire with closed- and open-ended items, and
2. face-to-face semi-structured interviews to allow an in-depth exploration of relevant issues emerging from the questionnaire.

The questionnaires were distributed and returned as email attachments in Japanese and English. The interviews were conducted in Japanese and recorded with the consent of the interviewees. Three factors were indentified: the interpretations of learner autonomy and SALL concepts, the Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of SALLC, and the implementation methods of SALL in Japan.

Results

Three Factors Identified

1. The interpretations of learner autonomy and SALL concepts

I created summary definitions for the concepts of SALL and independent language learning by summarizing comments in the students' questionnaire responses. Then, during the interviews, I showed the students the summary definitions A and B and asked them to comment on the extent to which they agreed with the definitions (see Table 1). The summary definitions used were:

- Definition A: "Self-access language learning is about facilities; the focus is on providing materials, location, and support."
- Definition B: "Independent language learning is learners taking responsibility."

Students 11 and 15 disagreed with definition A, but overall, there was an agreement on the summary definitions of SALL and independent language learning. Students 3, 6, 9, and 13 disagreed with definition B, stating that teachers should be taking responsibility for the process. However, the overall high level of agreement with the summary definitions is not surprising because they were summarized from students' own initial questionnaire responses. All students believed that the summary definition of SALL represented their own perception of autonomous learning. However, other comments made by students during the interviews suggested that their concepts of learner autonomy were less precisely defined, as some students also linked autonomous learning to the need for guidance. Some examples of student comments are:

- » S3 [interview]: Without guidance, we can't be autonomous learners. We need resources and help.

» S6 [interview]: Resources and teachers' support are crucial **to** the student's success in his or her autonomous learning.

2. The Japanese learners' beliefs about the purpose of SALLC

Students were asked to express their beliefs about the purpose of SALLC by agreeing or disagreeing with comments. Student responses are summarized in Table 2.

- Comment summary A: I don't know what the purpose is.
- Comment summary B: A good place to relax in my free time.
- Comment summary C: A good place to meet my friends.

Eighty percent of respondents stated that they don't know the purpose of SALLC, despite the initial orientation to the Centre and the presence of staff throughout opening hours. A total of 56.2% disagreed with comment summary B while 68.7 % disagreed with comment summary C. Other comments made by students during the interviews suggested that many students were unsure about the interpretation and purpose of SALLC. Some examples from students include:

» S1 [interview]: This is a very difficult question for me.
» S9 [interview]: Probably the Ministry of Education and teachers know about the purpose.

3. The implementation methods of SALL in Japan

Students were asked to provide their views about the implementation methods of SALL in Japan by agreeing or disagreeing with comments. Student responses are summarized in Table 3.

- Comment summary A: SALLC should improve students' English and TOEIC test scores.
- Comment summary B: SALLC should be integrated with some courses.

Table 1. Student Agreement With Definitions of Self-Access and Independent Language Learning

Summary definition	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16
A	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O
B	O	O	X	O	O	X	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O	O	O

Note. O = agreement, X = disagreement.

Table 2. Student Agreement With Comments About the Purpose of SALLC

Comment summary	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16
A	O	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	O
B	X	X	X	X	O	X	O	O	O	X	O	X	X	O	O	X
C	O	X	X	X	X	X	O	O	O	X	O	X	X	X	X	X

Note. O = agreement, X = disagreement.

- Comment summary C: SALLC teachers should help students with proofreading their English assignments.

The total percentage of students agreeing with comment summary C was 93.7%, 62.5% agreed with comment summary A, while 62.5% disagreed with comment summary B. Other comments made by students during the interviews suggest that many students were unsure about the link between university classes and SALLC. Some examples taken from the student interviews include:

» S3 [interview]: SALLC is a separate place for English education in a particular time.
» S16 [interview]: SALLC is a place for learning about western culture and not to be linked to the university formal English Education.

Discussion and Conclusion

Perfect autonomous learning in the western sense is difficult to achieve in Japan, where the exercise of autonomy is faced with opposition from powerful actors. In this paper, autonomy is not merely a reflection capacity that guides value-oriented decisions; it is about being able to enact those decisions and change one's circumstances in a particular context. The questionnaire and interviews identified obstacles to the use of the SALLC, since 80% of the Japanese respondents stated that they don't know the purpose of SALLC, despite the initial orientation to the Centre and the presence of staff throughout opening hours. In addition, many students were unsure about the link between university classes and SALLC.

Finally, this study showed that adapting learner autonomy and SALL concepts is a complex process that differs dramatically across cultures. Japanese learners independently lacked a sound understanding of the rationale behind this approach to learning and of what it involves in practice. In short, there is plenty of work still to be done in enhancing learners' understanding and experience of SALL in Japan.

Bio Data

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Table 3. Student Agreement With Comments About the Implementation of SALL

Comment summary	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16
A	X	O	X	O	X	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	X	X
B	X	X	X	O	O	X	O	O	X	O	X	X	X	O	X	X
C	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

Note. O = agreement, X = disagreement.

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Self-Access Rooms: Accountability and Mentoring

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Reference Data:

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As Japanese universities open self-access study rooms to help students develop autonomy in learning languages, Chubu University's Self-Instruction (SI) room has been encouraging autonomous learning for 24 years to over 10,000 students who frequent the SI room for independent study, fulfilling a variety of English language learning goals. In this paper we focus on the role of accountability and mentoring in student attainment of language learning goals in Chubu's SI room. The evolution of the ways that learner accountability has been implemented in the SI room are shown. The current method by which learners are held accountable to their study plans through reporting folders and its success is presented through student feedback. Additionally, the new mentoring service, which provides support through individual counseling and workshops, is described. The success of the mentoring service is shown through student feedback and growth in number of participants in independent learning programs.

目標言語の習得に伴い自律した学習支援を図るため、日本全国の大学各所でセルフアクセス（自習）学習環境の整備が盛んになってきている。中部大学のSI Room（語学専用自習室）は、24年前から現在に至るまで、1万人にのぼる自主学習者の語学学習に貢献してきた。本稿は、中部大学SI Roomが、どのように自主学習の持続や目標達成を支援してきたかについて、特にメンターとしての教師の役割と責任に焦点を当てて論じるものである。具体的には紙媒体やオンラインでの学習記録ファイルづくりの促進とそれに対する助言方法、個人に対する自主学習カウンセリングと自主学習者グループを対象として適宜開催される学習体験ワークショップの開催について、その効果の指標となる参加者感想、自主学習利用者増加などとともに述べていく。

Chubu University has had a highly successful self-instruction room (SI room) dedicated to supporting students' success in independent language learning for over 20 years. The SI room provides a place for all students at Chubu University in the nine majors across campus to engage in self-directed language learning. Students use the SI room both for teacher assigned tasks and independent language learning. The SI room has been successful in attracting and aiding students who wish to engage in learning languages, as evidenced by the increased growth of its physical environment, staffing, and self-study support services. all of which provide support for autonomous language learning. One of the primary goals of the SI room is to provide students a path to learning independently as it pertains not only to language study but also to independent learning skills that can be applied in any area of study as the students move into adulthood.

The system of the SI room reflects well the current views on the role of self-access rooms in its attention to the importance of a comfortable learning environment (Cooker, 2010) and its abundance of resources such as materials, activities, and support. Because students with a variety of target languages use this SI room, an English-only language policy as described by Barrs (2010) is not applied. All of the resources are selected to accommodate learners of varying levels, objectives, learning habits, and interests (Gardner & Miller, 1999). In addition to the wide variety of materials-based resources, the SI room at Chubu University has computer-assisted language learning, oral recording booths, workshops on independent language learning, and student and counseling and mentoring services for independent language study.

There are multiple reasons why students interested in studying languages independently choose to use the SI room. Surveys given to students who first visit the SI room help them to identify their reasons for using the SI room and assist the SI room personnel to be more helpful to the students. According to the survey, students most commonly use the SI room to

- continue language gains after they return from study abroad;
- prepare for study abroad;
- maximize language study during school breaks;
- overcome weak points in language learning;
- build basic language skills;
- prepare for examinations such as the TOEIC, TOEFL, and Eiken; and
- prepare for international scholarship applications.

Although it is clear that students arrive at the SI room motivated to use its resources, it became apparent in recent years that students often needed additional assistance in achieving their independent language learning goals effectively and satisfyingly. In this paper we will examine the advent of the SI room's counseling service and its accompanying accountability programs designed for independent learners at Chubu University's SI room.

Counseling Information Sources for This Paper

The information concerning use of the SI room counseling services has been gleaned from a focus group and initial applications from students requesting counseling services offered by the SI room's counselor. The focus group consisted of nine students who have been using counseling services and were asked to answer written open-ended questions about their use of the counseling services at the SI room at Chubu University in their native language. The survey was submitted anonymously and translated into English. The information from the applications is actually part of the mentoring process. There are two applications that students seeking counseling assistance at the SI room complete. They complete a questionnaire to request counseling services and arrange an appointment with a counselor and complete another at the first meeting with a counselor or mentor. These questionnaires are referenced and described later in this paper. Additionally, SI room counseling records, which are collected in annual reports to the university, are used to support facts and figures.

The SI Room Counseling Service at Chubu University

The counseling service at Chubu University started informally in 2006, when students began requesting advice and assistance with their autonomous learning. Word spread quickly about the benefits of obtaining assistance from an experienced counselor (who also happened to be an English teacher and the assistant director of the Chubu University Language Center). Due to the increase in requests for assistance, formalization of the counseling process became necessary in order for the staff to more efficiently serve students. By 2010, it became clear that standard systems needed to be implemented to better serve both students and staff in the counseling process. The formalization served to standardize procedures and create a predictable workload for the counselor. Table 1 shows the growth of demand for SI room counseling services.

Table 1. Growth of SI Room Counseling Services at Chubu University

School year beginning in April	Number of counseling participants
2006	2
2007	3
2008	4
2009	13
2010	34
2011	43
April-October 2012	25

Reasons Students Request Counseling

Students access counseling services for their independent language learning study for a wide variety of reasons. Counseling in the SI room is limited to students who have already attempted independent language learning through the SI room on their own. The counseling is entirely at the students' request and is neither encouraged nor discouraged. According to students' initial application questionnaire, the common reasons that students seek counseling for independent study include

- teacher recommendation,
- a sense of not studying efficiently,
- disappointment in target language improvement,
- difficulty maintaining motivation,
- changes in availability of previous learning methods, and
- a new commitment to language learning goals.

For the most part, the students have encountered a cathartic realization that leads them to seek intervention in their autonomous language learning experience.

Assisting Students with SI Room Counseling

The intent of the SI room counseling service is to help learners in several ways. Students are encouraged to set goals for their language learning. Additionally, students are asked to reflect on their previous language learning strategies in order to identify issues and define new approaches. Students are helped to design and adjust their self-study programs and habits through introduction to materials. They are assisted in finding appropriate scaffolding to support their language learning goals. They are encouraged to use methods of accountability including using commercial English tests such as the CASEC (Computerized Assessment System for English Communication) and the TOEFL tests. This assistance is designed to encourage students to maintain the best possible environment to effectively reach their independent language learning goals.

In order to receive the help available from the counseling service, students use the SI room counseling in systematic ways. Most students meet with a counselor in order to interact concerning short- and long-term goals, previous and current language study habits, and current materials being used, and to receive advice about ineffective study methods and materials. Additionally, students are given the option to maintain a record of their study activities in order to help them continue to be motivated, troubleshoot problems, and note productive and unproductive changes in their independent language learning.

Best Practices of the Counselor or Mentor

The SI counselor must be prepared to assist students with keen insight and observation in the SI room. The counselor must be knowledgeable about available materials and learning styles in order to best fit them to students' needs and goals. As discussed by Kato (2012), the SI counselor must engage in excellent interactive practices to best assist learners. The counselor must be encouraging and comforting as the student is frequently encountering some difficulty or vulnerability in the autonomous language learning process. The counselor needs to be ready and willing to be observant and timely with feedback in order to recognize learners' counterproductive study habits. It's important that the counselor be aware of and able to clearly share successful self-study models with learners so that learners are able to integrate successful methods into their learning. Finally, the self-instruction counselor must be willing to accept learners' choices to alter or abandon plans for whatever reason.

The SI counselor not only uses observation and insight, but also uses students' information to better individuate advice and counsel. In the application for counseling services, students are asked to provide information that can help the counselor such as when and where students study, general information about availability, and information about language learning goals and challenges. After looking at the counseling application form (see Appendix A), the counselor prepares ideas and materials in order to consult more deeply with students at the counseling appointment. At the appointment, students complete a self-instruction counseling form (see Appendix B) that includes more specific and immediate goals and a chance for students to note the materials that interest them. This could include information about preparing for upcoming examinations, achieving a certain level in classes, and the particular skills the student is interested in building. In this process, the students not only provide information for the counselor, but also reflect upon their own habits and behaviors that contribute to both their autonomous language learning success and difficulties.

Student User Response to SI Room Counseling

The nine students who participated in the written focus group questionnaire have identified several ways in which the SI room counseling has helped them to achieve their autonomous language learning goals. All students mentioned using specific materials better and improving study procedures. One student said that she spent less time studying and more time learning, while another mentioned that he now proceeded without unproductive learning. Students unanimously mentioned that persistence in independent study was increased through use of SI room counseling with one student stating that she tackles self-directed learning more aggressively than ever before. The students have found greater direction and in turn self-sufficiency through using the counseling services.

Accountability in Independent Language Learning

In addition to meeting with and advising students in how to proceed with their independent study, the SI room counseling service at Chubu University also offers students the option to maintain accountability by using paper-based folders. In the folders, students track their language learning habits with the SI room counselor. While computer-based Google Docs folders were attempted originally, student compliance became an issue. Although it seems counter intuitive, students' preferences leaned toward using hard copy, and the use of manila folders with paper inspired greater compliance among students (see Appendix C). The self-study folders provide students and counselors a visual tracking of study time, frequency of study, material use, students' self-evaluation, and brief counselor feedback.

As has been mentioned by Tassinari (2012), the evaluation from both student and counselor are important to students' recognition of both successes and areas to be attended to in their autonomous language learning. Students encourage themselves and are encouraged by the counselor in numerous ways by tracking their study behavior in their SI room folder. In the folder, in the first column, students track their study time. This helps students to see when they need to adjust the amount of time or time of day being used for independent study. The next column encourages students to identify the location that they study in order to recognize locations that are more and less productive. In the third column, students record the materials that they have used. In the fourth column, students comment on their study plans and evaluate their adherence to meeting goals. These comments give the counselor insight into the student's learning process and the counselor may suggest adjustments should the student request assistance. The ranking system helps students to be more aware of the intensity of their study and may indicate a need for different materials.

The counselor plays a direct role in making the folders interactive and keeping the students aware that someone is observing their behaviors. The interaction is focused on simple response to retain the autonomous nature of each student's activity. The goal of the interaction is not to create voluminous information from the counselor, but to maintain an environment of accountability. In Figure 3, the counselor has posted a brief note suggesting a change in scheduling. The colored stamps indicate to the students that the entry has been viewed. Brief casual comments encourage, acknowledge, and affirm students' challenges and successes. The counselor does not intend to inhibit the autonomous nature of the students' study, but does seek to provide a presence to enhance accountability.

The seven of the nine focus group participants who used the folders found them to be beneficial in several ways, including strengthening self-assurance in their directions and building in additional more immediate motivations to continue studying. Students mentioned that maintaining the folders served to increase their confidence in their chosen method of autonomous language learning. Additionally, students mentioned that even the superficial monitoring of the folders proved sufficient to help them maintain energy simply by being observed by a third party. One focus group respondent mentioned that it was great encouragement to continue to study when another person was observing. The folders also helped students to identify ways in which they could study more. As one student said, "I think that it made me feel I must work harder, and has led to continuing self-directed learning."

Conclusion and Future Directions

The counseling services for autonomous language learners in Chubu University's SI room have been growing consistently since they began in 2006. The formalized systems implemented in those years have served to guide students toward more efficient and effective independent language learning. Additionally, students have been inspired to greater persistence through concrete measures of accountability. The formalization of this system can be used in any mentoring environment or self-access room to inspire best practices of counselors and participants.

All indications imply that the use of mentoring services will continue to grow as students maintain their commitment to learning languages independently. To accommodate growth and to improve upon the current model, several plans have been made. A peer counseling service administered through a student network is being discussed to provide student generated independent language study advice, especially related to materials selection. Additionally, because the work of the SI room counselor is intense, additional mentors will be trained to offer feedback and support. Support for additional trained counselors among the faculty and student population are being developed at this time.

Future studies will include a quantitative study of successful and unsuccessful independent language learners and its implications for the counseling procedures used in the SI room at Chubu University. Further investigation will also center on the role of workshops and group activities in student persistence and success in autonomous language learning. Continued attention to the ways in which a mature self-access language-learning center evolves and adapts to student and community needs will be addressed in future research.

Bio Data

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Appendix A

Self-Instruction Counseling Application Form

英語自主学習カウンセリング　申請日　/　/　申込用紙

学籍番号
学年　年
氏名
よみがな

SI ROOM利用経験 □なし □あり 利用開始時期：

SI ROOMカウンセリング経験 □なし □あり

PASEO・英語科目受講歴 科目名/担当者名

英語資格試験等の経験 □なし □あり
試験名：
受験時期：　年　月頃
スコア：
*各セクションの点数が分かる場合はご明記ください。
*カウンセリング時にはスコア票をご持参ください。

希望曜日・時間帯
*複数ご記入ください

曜日	時間帯
曜日	時間帯
曜日	時間帯
曜日	時間帯

Tora-netアドレス	－　@ sti.chubu.ac.jp

*ご記入の個人情報は、本カウンセリングを目的として、学内規定に基づいて適切に管理します。
*個人情報以外のカウンセリング指導データは、統計情報として教育方法改善の目的のために教員が使用することがあります。

申込理由　これからの学習目標、これまでの学習方法、今取り組んでいる学習などがあれば簡単にご記入ください。

自主学習カウンセリング実施日をご連絡します。下記へメールを送信し、このアドレスからのメールを受信可能な状態にして下さい。
宛先：siroom@lc.chubu.ac.jp　件名：自主学習カウンセリング
本文：学籍番号、氏名、携帯電話番号（緊急連絡がメールで届く方は不要）

☆ SI ROOM特別講座、おすすめ教材などの情報配信を □希望する □希望しない
☆ SI ROOM自主学習カウンセリングのことを何で知りましたか？

※以下には記入しないでください。

カウンセリング実施日	月　日　曜日　時間：	No.
カウンセリング実施連絡	月　日 □メール □口頭	

Appendix B

Self-Instruction Counseling Form

英語自主学習カウンセリング記録　学籍番号　氏名

年　月　日　曜日　時間　～

実施者：小栗成子

☐ Vocabulary
☐ Pronunciation
☐ Listening
☐ Dictation
☐ Grammar
☐ others

☐ Reading for Understanding(RFU)
☐ Reading (Notetaking)
☐ Writing
☐ TOEIC
☐ TOEFL

☐ SIルームでの学習予定
☐ 学習記録ファイル

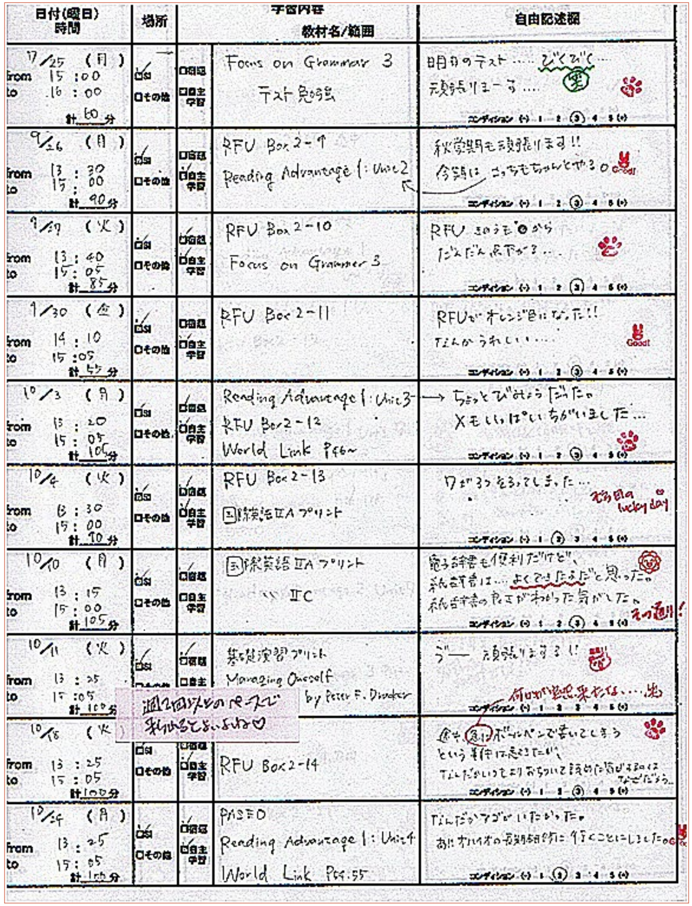
目標設定（長期）

目標設定（短期）

教材　学習方法　意識／焦点

Appendix C

Figure 3. Sample Self-Study Folder Page



Small Talk: Pragmatics Lessons for College English Language Learners

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Small talk in the workplace by nonnative English speakers has been widely researched; however, small talk by English language learners (ELLs) in a school context remains an underexplored area. This paper introduces the implementation of pilot lessons on small talk to Japanese college students enrolled in an intermediate conversation class. The focus is on pragmatics-based activities that include ways for students to develop their sociopragmatic awareness.

非英語母語話者による職場内の英語の雑談は広く研究されてきた一方で英語学習者による学校内での雑談の研究は発展途上である。本稿では、中級の英語会話講座を受講する日本人大学生に対して実施された雑談のレッスンの質的研究を論じている。語用論に基づくアクティビティーにより、受講者が社会語用論的認識を高める方法に焦点を当てたものである。

Small talk has proven to be important in both workplace and academic contexts. The main function of small talk is to "oil the social wheels" (Holmes, 2005, p. 353), which includes expressing friendliness and establishing rapport, as well as maintaining good relations and solidarity. Topics for small talk are noncontroversial and cover a wide range, including weather, business, holidays, sports, complaints, appearance, and social events (Holmes, 2005; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003). As the term implies, *small* talk had a negative perception as marginal or purposeless when it was introduced in the 1920s (Jaworski, 2000), as it was considered talk not concerned with information, not purposeful nor task-oriented (Holmes, 2000). While there is the assumption that one's ability to engage in small talk is a talent, studies show that rather than a talent, "knowing how much small talk to use and whether to extend it into more personal or social talk is a sophisticated sociolinguistic skill" (Holmes & Fillary, 2000, p. 281). As small talk is a skill learned through social participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991), to be successful at small talk one needs to be able to analyze the various dimensions involved in social interaction, such as power, solidarity, formality and function in the workplace (Holmes, 2005).

While small talk is challenging for native speakers of English, it may be even more so for English language learners (ELLs) who face challenges in the acquisition of the target language. The consequences of not having learned the skills to engage in small talk, for example, may result in situations such as international graduate students who are capable of teaching courses in their areas of expertise in English, but not having the skills to socialize with native English-speaking undergraduate students (Myles & Cheng, 2003). Having pragmatic competence, which is one's ability to use context-appropriate language while communicating based on the status of the hearer, distance between the hearer and speaker, and intensity of the message (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; LoCastro, 2012), may be crucial when engaging in small talk. A lack of pragmatic competence may result in pragmatic failure when communicating with other speakers of English, resulting in "awkwardness, misunderstanding, or even a temporary communication breakdown" (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 78). This lack could be attributed to environmental factors, such as the imbalance between EFL learners' pragmatic competence due to not residing in the host country and their grammatical competence, which may be higher due to the focus of their language instruction (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). This, however, should not mean that EFL learners do not have the potential of acquiring pragmatic competence.

Small Talk—A Community Practice

The concept of Communities of Practice (CoP) can offer insights on how easing into a community's small talk practices can be achieved. Introduced by Lave and Wenger (1991), the CoP proposes that one learns through social participation that evolves from legitimate peripheral participation. In communities of practice, participation refers to people being "active participants in the *practices* of social communities and constructing *identities* in relation to these communities" (Wenger, 1998, p. 4). According to Wenger, the four components of meaning, practice, community, and identity are integrated in a social theory of learning in which social participation becomes a process of learning and knowing. As an immigrant learns to become part of a new community by learning the language and the practices (Norton, 2000), an international student, whose purpose in the host country is academic research, earning a degree, or both, becomes integrated into the academic community by socializing with host country members in the target language.

Practice and identity are especially relevant in understanding small talk in a community. First, practice connotes "doing, but not just doing in and of itself, . . . [rather in] a historical and social context that gives structure and meaning" (Wenger, 1998, p. 47) to what is practiced. For example, international students learn to take part in different modes of learning in the host country by participating in such activities as small group discussions. While a community may not be a group with boundaries, there is an understanding that participants have the awareness of why they do what they do and what it means to their community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Thus, each community provides a space where learning takes place and through which members define their identity in the community (Wenger, 1998).

The Study

This study deals with lessons on small talk in English to Japanese EFL learners who are engineering students enrolled in an intermediate English conversation course at a private Japanese university. Although the university is known for its exchange program with overseas institutions, in the past engineering students were not encouraged to participate due to demands in the curriculum that prevented study abroad. However, as the department was launching its own study-abroad program with two institutions—one in the US, the other in Thailand—the pressing need to develop pragmatic competence among prospective study-abroad students spurred the development of the lessons.

The pilot lessons were given while the department was holding negotiations with candidate institutions for its exchange program. It was hoped that future implementation of the lessons would help prepare the students. Eight of the nine students who consented to be part of this study had not previously traveled outside Japan. However, one male student had lived in Mexico for a year as an intern in the year prior to the study. While the level of the course itself was intermediate, the level of English competence among the students varied, as there was no standardized language placement test offered by the academic department at the time of the study.

Although textbooks could be one resource for teaching expressions commonly used in small talk, I felt that an exercise or activity that involved students generating their own language would be to their advantage. Therefore, a discourse completion task, or DCT, which is a way to elicit language for the purpose of collecting samples (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010), was the method chosen to collect data in this study. DCTs allow students to generate responses by imagining themselves in hypothetical contexts and as part of a given community of practice, interacting with others. The study consisted of three 45-minute pilot lessons, with DCTs and role-plays, and addressed the following two research questions:

1. Can lessons on small talk raise the pragmatic awareness of prospective exchange students for their study abroad?
2. Is the students' awareness of the sociopragmatic aspects (status and distance) of small talk reflected in their DCTs and role-plays?

Instruction

Three pragmatics-based lessons were taught for approximately 30 minutes each, for which the objective was two-fold: (a) learners would understand pragmatic aspects in small talk; and (b) learners would perform DCTs, through which their understanding of appropriate sociopragmatic aspects would be checked. Although there are criticisms against written DCTs in that they do not reflect how we speak, it is a quick and convenient way to collect language samples (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

The first lesson opened with an overview of what small talk entails, including a presentation in English by the instructor, followed by a cloze exercise using a video on small talk designed for ESL purposes. While the speed of the interlocutions in the video clip was slower than the natural speed spoken by native speakers, the intention was to ensure that the utterances were sufficiently audible to the learners to ensure their comprehension. Participants were expected to identify some small talk topics. In the second lesson, a short segment from an American movie was played in order to expose the students to more authentic language, at an accelerated speed, to raise their awareness on the variations of status and distance between the interlocutors. Then they were paired up for a DCT activity to be performed in the third lesson.

Data Collection Procedures

Student data were collected using a student self-assessment form, DCT worksheets, and an open-ended questionnaire. The self-assessment taken after the first lesson (see Appendix A) asked about previous experience with small talk and what students had learned that day. The written DCT worksheet (see Appendix B) had two scenarios, both of which involved small talk between a Japanese university student and an American university student. The instructor assessed the participants' performance using a separate form to check on the appropriateness of their formality (status and distance), topic, and word choice. The postlesson open-ended questionnaire in Japanese (see Appendix C) asked participants to reflect on their overall thoughts as they participated in the small talk lessons. Items included questions about whether participants thought that prospective study-abroad students would benefit from practicing small talk.

Participants were also asked what else they believed would be necessary to include for effective small talk lessons.

Findings

After the first lesson where small talk in English was introduced, there was evidence in students' self-assessments that one lesson alone had already helped to raise the pragmatic awareness of the participants, which corresponds with the first research question. Their understanding about the role of small talk as explained during the lesson and what they believed were appropriate topics for small talk suggested that a lesson with similar contents might raise the pragmatic awareness of prospective exchange students prior to their study abroad. For example, one student commented that it was helpful to learn how a conversation in English flows, while another thought sharing information with the listener is an important part of small talk.

As for the second research question concerning the sociopragmatic aspects of small talk, the DCTs and role-plays showed that the participants were aware of social status and distance between the speakers. For instance, in one DCT, while students are usually status equals, the status of one student became higher than the other because he offered to teach the Japanese language to the other.

Stepping Into Small Talk

In the first self-assessment form that participants filled out in Japanese, when asked to reflect on what they knew about small talk, six out of nine participants answered that they did not know anything about small talk or had never heard the term in English before. The other three wrote about some level of knowledge. One student stated that small talk is "a short conversation, casual conversation." Another student commented on his understanding of distance between speakers. He wrote, "I knew I had to be careful about distance." Another student commented on his awareness of having a smooth conversation when he responded, "When talking with others, I have to talk smoothly."

The responses by the first and third students reflected their observation of the video as the small talk topics between the interlocutors changed quickly and there was no elaboration or deep discussion on any of the topics. However, as the second student was on a sports team, where status and distance are emphasized, his response might have reflected the relationships of the members on the team.

Sociopragmatic Aspects in Small Talk Discourse

In the theoretical framework of the CoP, Wenger (1988) discussed the idea of modes of belonging as important parts in the process of creating one's identity and learning. These modes are engagement, imagination and alignment. The findings of the current study show that all three modes were evident in the participants' DCTs. According to Wenger, engagement is defined as the "active involvement in mutual processes of negotiation of meaning" (p. 173), and alignment is the coordination of "energy and activities in order to fit within broader structures and contribute to broader enterprises" (p. 174). In their interactions, the participants were engaging with each other by using their imagination to create DCTs in order to simulate a small talk situation. Through their role-plays, the participants aligned to each other in order to accomplish a purpose, to oil the wheels.

Two sociopragmatic aspects dealing with the relationship between interlocutors, status and distance, which were brought to the participants' attention, were the intended answers to the question, "What are two important elements in small talk?" Seven out of the nine participants responded as intended, while two wrote about individual attitudes to be taken during small talk. For example, the only student who wrote his responses in English stated that "communication and friendly" were important to small talk. Another student commented, "When having small talk, one needed to enjoy and to be careful not to be disrespectful."

Status

In the second lesson participants worked on a DCT that was completed when they performed role-plays during the third lesson. Because the scenario was between two students, the participants' understanding of the relationship between the interlocutors was "close" (for distance) and "equal" (for status). However, one group's role-play revealed a status difference between the students, albeit briefly.

Situation 1

Your American friend is studying Japanese. You see your friend, who tells you about the test he just took in Japanese class.

You: Hey, how was the Japanese test?

Friend: Well. It was difficult.

You: Don't mind. I'll teach you.

Friend: Wow.

In the third line, the Japanese student, while empathizing with the American student, offers to teach Japanese to help the American overcome his difficulties in studying Japanese. Here, the Japanese student's identity shifts from that of a student to a teacher, resulting in his being a teacher (Richards, 2006). As a result, the two are no longer equals; the Japanese student's status becomes higher than that of the American student when he volunteers to teach Japanese to the American student. While students in general are aware that teachers have higher status than they do, this group's DCT revealed that the status of students could manifest itself in a hierarchical relationship within this particular context.

Distance

Another group's DCT revealed the aspect of distance between the interlocutors.

Situation 2

You are an exchange student from Tokyo, Japan. You are studying in a small American university in the suburbs. You spent your winter vacation in a big city and tell your American friend about how exciting your trip was.

Friend: Hi, how are you?

You: I'm fine. Are you?

Friend: I'm fine, too. How was your vacation?

You: It was great! I saw many buildings.

Friend: Did you buy something?

You: Yes, I bought. Here you are.

Friend: Wow, thanks! What's this?

You: It's a famous chocolate in the city.

Friend: I like chocolate very much!

In this DCT, the Japanese student buys chocolate as a souvenir for the American student. This is possibly based on the practice of Japanese gift giving, in which Japanese usually buy souvenirs for close friends. Therefore, the DCT reveals that the interlocutors are not simply friends, but that they are close friends.

Small Talk Mediating Language Learner Awareness

In the postlesson open-ended questionnaire, the participants' responses showed how their awareness had been raised through the series of small talk lessons. Their comments were not limited to their contextual awareness, such as status and difference, but extended to how their awareness as language learners had been raised. Asked about what participants found useful in the lessons, two participants responded. One wrote that he believed that constructing conversations from scratch would be necessary in the future and found it useful. Another wrote that he understood that conversations could carry on even with short sentences.

Discussion

Pragmatics lessons invite learners to consider contextual factors in language production and seek their own answers through negotiation with others. Although small talk may not be anything new in the participants' first language, to learn about what small talk in English entails through English instruction may have posed some challenges for them.

To paraphrase Lave and Wenger's (1991) concept of the CoP, the way for learners to become members of a second language or foreign language community is to learn the language by using it. Wenger's (1988) three modes of belonging—engagement, imagination, and alignment—were evident in the participants' DCTs as well as in their identities as English language learners. The DCTs did not show signs of pragmalinguistic failure of interactions in which, for example, turns lacked a logical sequence. At the same time, the completed DCTs may have paralleled the participants' own level of engagement while they were negotiating during the process of creating their DCTs and attempting to align their thinking towards the shared goal of accomplishing a task while using their imagination.

Reflections by the participants suggest the importance and the need to provide learners with thought-provoking activities that encourage them to use the target language. The advantage of DCTs is that they can help students generate skits in a variety of situations. This lends itself to instruction on conversation structures appropriate for different situations, such as how to open and close conversations, as well as on adjacency pairs (e.g., "Thank you" "You're welcome").

There is room for consideration on how pragmalinguistic aspects need to be incorporated in the lessons. The instructor should have criteria for instruction on forms or grammar points, or on how to handle grammatical errors in the participants' language production or in the DCTs, as these criteria provide direction on error correction and instruction, as well as contributing to comprehensibility of the speaker's utterance (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). This may require the creation of a unit within the bigger picture of pragmalinguistics, for example, through speech act instruction, prior to introducing small talk.

The limited availability of resources for small talk instruction presented difficulties on how to teach sociopragmatic skills, especially the subtleties and complexities of small talk (Holmes, 2005). As such pedagogical methods were not incorporated in the current study, they need to be further researched and modified to teach language learners. In terms of exposure to language by native speakers, availability of level-appropriate materials needs to be further explored. Movies can serve as authentic language resources, yet balancing their authenticity and the speed of interaction needs to be considered to ensure that language learners can keep up with the fast pace and the length of turns in interaction.

Assessment tools to be used in the future need to be further developed and refined to fulfill the teaching objectives and to ensure higher reliability and validity. Furthermore, criteria need to be further broken down into details, for example, addressing

"(1) directness, politeness, and formality in context; (2) choice and use of supportive moves; and (3) overall pragmatics-focused comprehensibility" (Ishihara, 2009, p. 452). Using audio- or video-recordings, or both, of learner production to check tone of voice and body language may be added for detailed assessment.

As the lessons were intended for prospective study-abroad students, after their predeparture implementation, a postdeparture follow-up on progress in the target language country or community would ensure the validity of the predeparture lessons (Holmes & Riddiford, 2010). Upon return, more research conducted with the students could further improve the quality of future lessons as the students' feedback would be a vital resource for revising and creating materials which fulfill their needs.

Conclusion

The pilot lessons helped generate interest in small talk in English among the participants. It is therefore hoped that small talk instruction could benefit prospective study-abroad students once such instruction becomes established in the department's regular curriculum. However, application of learner awareness of sociopragmatic aspects (status and distance) to appropriate language production in real-life situations may be a lifelong learning process. While small talk may seem trivial and meaningless, research has shown that it has an extremely important role in communication. If it is crucial for those living in the target culture, it can be even more so for those who are preparing to live there as a way to help them adjust to the host country.

Bio Data

Reiko Takeda teaches undergraduate English courses at Aoyama Gakuin University. Her interests include using conversation analysis to enhance students' speaking and pragmatics ability.

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Appendix A

Self-Assessment

- What did you know about small talk before the lesson?
- What have you learned about small talk in English?
- What are two important aspects in small talk?
- What are some possible small talk topics?

Appendix B

Discourse Completion Task

Situation 1

You are an American student taking a Japanese class. You see your Japanese friend on campus and tell him/her about the test you just took in Japanese class.

You:

Friend:

You:

Friend:

Situation 2

You are an exchange student from Tokyo, Japan. You are studying in a small American university in the suburbs. You spent your winter vacation in a big city and tell your American friend about how exciting your trip was.

Friend:

You:

Friend:

You:

Appendix C

Postlesson Questionnaire

English Communication 受講の皆さんへ

(To students enrolled in English Communication))

3回にわたるSmall Talkの練習へのご協力をありがとうございました。

終了するにあたり、皆さんのご感想・ご意見を伺いたいと思いますので、お手数ですが、以下の質問にお答えください。

(Thank you for your cooperation in the Small Talk lessons of the past three sessions. I would appreciate it if you could answer the following questions)

1. 海外留学、または海外渡航前にSmall Talkのミニレッスンを実施することは、留学や渡航を控えている学生にとって良い準備になると思いますか？ Yes / No（理由）

(Do you think students will be better prepared if they go through mini-lessons on Small Talk prior to their studies or travel abroad? Yes/No. Why?)

2. これまでのレッスンで、何が興味深かったですか？

(What did you find interesting in the lessons that have been conducted?)

3. 何が役に立ちましたか？

(What did you find useful?)

4. 今回ご紹介しましたレッスンの内容のほかに、この先、何が必要だと思われますか？（例）ネイティブの音声を通したリスニングの機会を増やす。ロールプレイングなどの発話練習を増やす…など。

(In addition to what was instructed in the lessons, what else do you feel would be necessary for effective small talk lessons? e.g., More opportunities to enhance listening through the native speakers' recordings; more opportunities to speak through role-plays, etc.)

5. ご意見・ご感想など

(Other comments and thoughts)

Social Discourses as Moderators of Self-Regulation

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Reference Data:

Collett, P., and Sullivan, K. (2013). Social discourses as moderators of self-regulation. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

In this paper we address how learner perceptions of teacher-provided resources are socially mediated. In particular, we wish to consider how efforts to promote such important learning strategies as goal-setting, monitoring, and reflection are influenced by learner knowledge and beliefs about language learning. Three important factors (*catalysts*, *social discourses*, and *shared understandings*) emerged from data collected via interviews with students in a Japanese university who had used the resources in question. We argue that these factors serve as foundations underlying both our student engagement with, and attitudes towards, language learning. In this paper we focus specifically on the role of social discourses, perhaps better conceptualized as beliefs. We look at how these discourses or beliefs positively and negatively influence student understandings of study, along with their learning practices. Implications for classroom practice are considered.

本論文は、教員から与えられた教材に対する学習者の認識は社会的な影響に媒介より調整されていることについて考える。本論文で取り上げられている教材を実際に使った学習者とのインタビューから得たデータの分析により、三つの重要な要因（きっかけ、社会的ディスコース、共有の理解）が明らかになった。これらの要因は学習者の外国語学習への取り組みや外国語学習に対する意識・態度の根底にあると著者らは論ずる。本論文は特に社会的ディスコースに重点を置き考察を行う。

In an ongoing project aimed at helping our students develop as autonomous, self-regulated learners, we have been collecting data on how students perceive and respond to the resources we are using via surveys, examples of resource usage by students, and interviews. Our aim through this study is to investigate and more deeply understand how various factors contribute to student understandings of the resources presented to them in the classroom, in particular, one designed to help develop learners' self-regulated learning (SRL) ability. Specifically, we wish to consider how efforts to promote the use of strategies important for SRL—goal-setting, monitoring, and reflection—are influenced by learner knowledge and beliefs about (language) learning.

Whilst different sources of data suggest varied possibilities to account for student responses, one strong pattern that has emerged from our interview data points to the socially-mediated nature of student perceptions of the specific resource we are trialing and testing, a Study Progress Guide (SPG). In fact, we posit that three "foundations" are strongly related to student understanding and decisions: *catalysts*, *social discourses*, and *shared understandings*. In this paper, we focus on how one of these in particular, social discourses, has influenced our learners' understandings and conceptions of the SPG. It should be noted that we do not intend to assign a dominant role to social discourses here, but instead acknowledge it as one of a number of foundations, all of which seem to be linked and perhaps necessary for student readiness for SRL. However, we believe it is worth focusing on this particular foundation to stress the kinds of issues involved in attempts to promote learner development.

Another caveat is that we do not wish to assign a deterministic role to any of these foundations. Rather, we feel that they are situated, emergent properties of the learning environment. They help shape student attitudes toward language learning, but at the same time are reciprocally modified as students engage in learning activities and gain new understandings of their abilities and needs.

Research Orientation

Much of the research in SRL in the fields of education and psychology has tended to foreground the cognitive, and has "focused theoretical attention on the behavior and cognitive processes of individual people . . . and [has] treated the rest of the social, material and informational environments as contexts in which individual behavior occurs" (Greeno, 1998, p. 6). While this research has been important in advancing understanding, we feel that there is a need to give greater consideration to the social environment and how this influences the learner. Of course, we are not alone here. Bandura (1997), the main figure behind the social cognitive theory at the base of many developments in SRL, has stressed the importance of understanding human action in the light of sociohistorical factors. He has also argued strongly for recognising human agency as a socially situated part of human functioning and as operating within "a reciprocal interplay of intrapersonal, behavioral and environmental determinants. . . . this triadic interaction includes the exercise of self-influence as part of the causal structure. . . . in acting as an agent, an individual makes causal contributions to the course of events." (Bandura, 2006, p, 165).

More recent conceptualizations of SRL based on sociocultural theories of learning, as well as situated cognitive viewpoints, have resulted in a greater emphasis on the role of social factors in accounts of how learners come to self-regulate their learning. A perusal of recent journals and publications in the field of second language learning indicates that there is a growing body of research which draws on sociocultural theories to account for learner development and motivation. Wenden (1998), however, observed that one weakness of sociocultural perspectives is a tendency to emphasize activity or the setting, and "the knowledge/beliefs embedded in the setting or which emerge through the interaction that takes place in it is overlooked as a source of insight on learner's motives, goals and operations" (p. 530). This point about beliefs is worth considering in more detail. White (2008), in an overview of research on beliefs in language learning, supplied a definition of beliefs as "mental constructions of experiences" (Sigel, cited in White 2008, p. 121). Beliefs are seen as one factor influencing the learning strategies users employ, although from varying perspectives (White, 2008; Barcelos, 2003). Early conceptions of beliefs cast them as distinct from knowledge and somewhat unhelpful for learning (Barcelos, 2003). In metacognitive theories (e.g., Wenden, 1998, 2001), beliefs were classified as a subset of metacognitive knowledge and regarded as relatively stable and unchanging and as potentially able to help with development of learner autonomy. More contemporary conceptualizations have moved away from these views to one which sees beliefs as dynamic and shifting based on the contexts learners find themselves in (White, 2008). This is further exemplified by the work of Kalaja and Barcelos (2003) in which we see a strong emphasis on the situated, emergent, and socially-mediated nature of beliefs. Oxford (2011) has argued that placing beliefs under the rubric of metacognition is too restrictive, instead positing beliefs as a part of the learners' metaknowledge.

Gao (2010) argues that beliefs are closely linked to agency or the will or capacity to act: "language learners' motive/belief system . . . constitutes one of the most powerful parts of learner agency" (p. 158). He presents a shared metacognitive and sociocultural account to demonstrate how agency and metacognition contribute to learner autonomy (Gao & Zhang, 2011). Gao is one of a number of researchers who have outlined the importance of examining the ways learners exercise their agency so as to better understand the choices they make in their learning (see also Bown, 2009; Norton & Toohey, 2001). Along these lines, we prefer to follow a realist approach as espoused by Sealey and Carter (2004) along with Gao (2010) and Mercer (2011) whereby structure and agency are regarded as "interacting in a relationship of reciprocal causality which generates emergent irreducible phenomena" (Mercer, 2011, p. 428).

Context: Study Background

Our study is an ongoing research program working on the development of an SPG, a supplementary learning resource that aims to promote SRL strategies in an English course at a university in Japan. While the creation of the SPG has been covered in more depth elsewhere (Collett & Sullivan, 2010) in brief it consists of sections where students can set semester-wide learning goals (see Appendix B. 1), reflection activities based on these goals (Appendix B. 2), and additional unit-focused sections designed to promote goal-setting and self-reflection (Appendix B. 3). As part of the study, we carried out interviews with 12 students taking classes in which we were testing the SPG resource. These classes were oral communication English classes held once a week for 90 minutes, taught by native speakers of English. The participants were all majoring in economics and took the class as their primary foreign language requirement in a medium-sized university in provincial southwestern Japan. The interviews were semi-structured and were carried out in Japanese with individual students. All students were asked the same general questions (see Appendix A), but differing responses led to differing paths of exploration. The interviews were approximately 60 minutes long and were recorded with the consent of the interviewees. These recordings were transcribed and the transcriptions entered into NVivo 9 qualitative data analysis software (QSR International, 2010), which was used to help with managing the coding process. At the time of writing, analysis has been completed for six of the 12 students, and this analysis forms the basis for the ideas discussed in this paper. The data reported on here come from three female and three male students. See Table 1 for participant demographics.

Table 1. Participating Student Details

Name*	Sex	Year	Department	Group
Kei	Female	1st	International Commerce	Acceptance
Mai	Female	1st	International Commerce	Acceptance
Taro	Male	1st	Economics	Acceptance
Sara	Female	2nd	Economics	Acceptance
Yuu	Male	1st	International Commerce	Rejection
Daiki	Male	1st	International Commerce	Rejection

Note. *All names are pseudonyms

From our analysis of the data we found a clear dichotomy in attitudes towards the SPG, with four of the students stating that they found it useful for their learning (the *acceptance* group) whilst the remaining two claimed that they had either not understood the point of it or that they could not perceive its utility for their learning (the *rejection* group.) We also noticed a number of commonalities across the data, which we refer to as foundations as they seem to be a basic part of student attitudes towards the SPG. One of these foundations is the notion of some sort of social discourse playing a part in the students' positioning and understanding of the SPG as a learning device. This, in combination with the other foundations, leads the students to perceive the resource as either useful or otherwise. In the interviews with members of the acceptance group, we found that there were references to the commonly held beliefs in Japan of university as a "leisure land" and of Japanese university students as "inherently lazy." Within the rejection group we identified references to the social discourse of homework as an assessment procedure rather than as a means for learning. Both social discourses are outlined below.

Discourse 1: Views of University Life in Japan

One strong view of tertiary education in Japan relates to the belief that it is not really necessary for students to study when at university, and that all students will graduate regardless of their performance (see, e.g., Clark, 2010; Burgess, 2011). University is perceived more as a break between completing high school and entering the working world, a chance for students to engage in sporting or cultural pursuits, make friends and contacts, and have fun. Successful career pursuits are not contingent on students having graduated with high grades, and in fact most students have their future employment guaranteed before they have even graduated.

While the notions of university as leisure land and the university student as inherently lazy are common, it seems that these beliefs are not something all university students necessarily want to subscribe to nor to perpetuate. When asked what they perceived to be the meaning of the SPG, the acceptance group students typically positioned it as a useful device for helping, encouraging, or at times forcing them to study. These students all noted that while they had the best intentions to study independently at university, they, like all other (Japanese) students, believe themselves to be inherently lazy and will typically not study. Here, they position the SPG as an opportunity (or catalyst) that gives them an initial push to engage productively with their studies. This initial push is described as being crucial to gain the momentum or receive the necessary guidance that would allow them to independently engage in their studies. In particular, Kei and Sara reported they had seen the SPG as a way they could help themselves to move beyond the discourses they carried of students as lazy (see Table 2). They had their own conceptions of how they wanted to be as language learners (perhaps based on the idea of future or possible selves) and recognized that the SPG presented a course they could follow, or strategies they could use, to become more serious about their language study. Note here that while Kei and Sara argued that an element of initial compulsion was necessary, they also required and demanded a degree of independence or freedom to decide exactly how they themselves would engage with the SPG.

For students who have already begun to challenge the stereotype of the lazy student and have their own beliefs about the meaning of university study—as an opportunity for independent scholarship—the SPG is quickly and easily positioned as a useful learning device (note this is contingent on the other foundations, catalysts and shared understandings; the deeper relationship amongst these three factors are beyond the scope of this paper.) On the other hand, for the interviewees who fell into the rejection group, there was no mention of this particular discourse in their interviews. We have interpreted this as a marked absence of a potentially positive approach to interpreting and individualizing the purpose of the SPG.

Table 2. Students' Views of SPG

Interview question	Sample student responses
Why did you think the SPG was being used in class?	*I think it was to create a chance for us to be exposed to English. We were being given an opportunity to independently use English through the homework. If there was no SPG and we just went to class, we probably wouldn't revise the class work, right? I mean, I'm really lazy. For other classes, I only ever study just before the test. So, because the SPG allowed us to be in constant touch with English, I think it was helpful.* – Kei *What did I think was the purpose of doing the SPG? For the teacher to see the students' attitude and level of enthusiasm for learning. . . to measure their enthusiasm for learning, whether they are trying or not. They have to grade us, to pass at least a few people, so they need some way to do this.* – Yuu
Regarding overall use of the SPG	*Even if use of the SPG started off as something that was compulsory, as I used it and gradually got used to using it I felt that I started using it more proactively.* – Sara
Regarding Specific use of the SPG	*Sometimes when I'd think "What should I do for homework this time?" when Mr. L was my teacher he'd say "This week try doing this," and well that helped me come up with something to do. . . . And sometimes we end up doing the same kind of homework each week which is not interesting, so I would like the teacher to give us more specific examples of what we can do. . . . But, if my teacher told me "you must do this, do this this week," I would be frustrated and avoid doing the homework activity. It shouldn't all be decided by the teacher. If we are also given a say in what we do, then if the teacher suggests to me "Why don't you try this?" I would think "Okay, I'm going to be creative with this and show you what I can do."* – Kei

Discourse 2: SPG as a Teacher-Centered Assessment Device

As explained above, Yuu from the rejection group seems to be lacking a reason to position the SPG as a useful device. One reason for this could be explained by Yuu's understandings of the roles of teachers, assessment, and homework, and his conceptualization of the SPG as a teacher tool, a take on the SPG not even predicted by its creators.

When Yuu was asked to explain his understanding of the purpose of the SPG, he described it as a device for teachers to assess students. When asked to explain this idea in more detail, he said that teachers are in a position where they must assess students, which includes assessing the students' level of participation and effort put into their study. Teachers need methods to conduct this assessment, and he positioned the SPG as being such a method.

Compounding these beliefs were Yuu's ideas about homework. For the SPG students were encouraged to set their own homework activities based on areas covered in class and in the textbook that they felt needed further attention. Yuu, however, was unable to comprehend the purpose of this due to his own understanding of homework as an activity set by the teacher with specific pedagogical aims. Perhaps as a result, his use of the SPG was also problematic. While he originally used the SPG homework space to write a diary in English, after consult-ing with other students he concluded that all he needed to do was fill up the homework space, and he did so in a way that required minimum effort. This is also an example of the consequence of (a lack of) shared understandings, another important foundation for effective engagement with SRL. Because the SPG did not fit his concept of a pedagogically sound homework activity, and because he identified it as a teacher-centered device for monitoring and assessing students, Yuu was unable to identify the usefulness of the SPG for himself as a learner, which seems to have been at least one underlying reason for his rejection of it.

Discussion

While we have chosen to operationalize these particular aspects of student responses as a foundation of discourses, it may be more appropriate for our discussion to adopt a slightly different terminology and conceptualize them as beliefs. We suggest that social discourses represent a dynamic, situated, and emergent part of the learners' metaknowledge arising from their prior experiences, but also potentially mediated by future experiences, and that these beliefs can contribute positively towards learning, as well as hinder it. Given this conceptualization, how can we account for the role of social discourses in influencing learner decisions to engage with the SPG or otherwise?

As outlined previously, Gao (2010; Gao & Zhang, 2011) shows how beliefs can play a key part in helping learners gain control of language learning, and how, for example, positioning alternative beliefs to those that are part of the social discourse of a particular community can contribute to positive self-regulation, as we have seen with Sara and Kei. Gao's findings also demonstrate the importance of the learning context and show how this mediates students' strategy use and the discourses underlying strategy use. When they are able to understand their social learning contexts, learners can act to make use of aspects that support their language learning; there is an interactional relationship between learner agency and contextual conditions (Gao, 2010). We would argue that this is what accounts for the acceptance of the SPG by Kei and Sara. Gao also suggests that without the necessary metacognitive knowledge, learners are unable to apply their agency. This may account for reports from students that they were unable to see the usefulness of the SPG. These students don't necessarily *not* hold the same beliefs as others, but they are unable to utilize these beliefs in any kind of motivating or positive way: "no matter how critical and insightful learners' understanding of contextual conditions, such understanding serves no point if learners do not translate it into action through metacognitive operations" (Gao & Zhang, 2011, p. 38).

To account for differing beliefs held by the students, we can also draw on the sociocultural perspective outlined by Lantolf and Pavlenko (2001), "that since cognition is situated and distributed, we should not expect any two individuals to learn and develop in precisely the same way even if the material circumstances, or conditions of their learning appear similar" (p. 156). In other words, a sociocultural approach predicts different outcomes for different learners. In this respect, the motives people hold for language learning are related to the significance languages and learning hold for them; we would extend this to say the motivation they have to engage with resources is similarly linked to the significance learners place on their beliefs. It is perhaps obvious to say that learners will respond to the resources we supply in different ways due to their different histories. One role of the teacher is to discover learners' specific histories, personalities, and agency "through observation and interaction with the learners and to build upon what we find in ways that enhance the likelihood that any given person will have the opportunity to learn and develop" (Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001, p. 157).

A slightly different perspective comes from Bown (2009), again based in sociocultural theory. She argues for the important role of affordances, "relationships of possibility between individuals and their environments" (Bown, 2009, p. 579), and discusses how these influence agency. The learning environment affords different possibilities to learners based on, amongst other things, their beliefs. However, in keeping with Gao, she argues that if students are to regulate and manage learning, they need to be aware of their agency and believe themselves capable of exercising it.

If we accept these perspectives, then it would seem apparent that we need to help our learners to recognize and internalize the positive beliefs underpinning their language learning efforts. At the same time it is necessary to help them challenge or reformulate in constructive terms the beliefs that they may hold that are limiting their self-regulatory potential. We also need to offer students possibilities to act on their beliefs, as was the case with the acceptance group students who saw the SPG as a useful device to support their initial attempts at self-managing their learning. In our study, the social discourses can be seen as one contextual condition; by having students reflect on how these influence their learning it should work to help them to develop as better learners. Gao (2010) has also shown how societal and traditional discourses related to the value of English seem to be tied to motivation and strategy use, but at the same time, these discourses are mediated by other social agents such as parents and teachers. We believe our results allow for similar conclusions.

Yuu's response to the SPG also demonstrates how there is a potential gap between teacher intentions and learner interpretations of these intentions that can potentially impact on class outcomes, and it appears that this is related to the beliefs of the learner (see also Woods, 2003). Furthermore, in the way Yuu used the SPG we see not just the social mediation of his belief about how it should be used, but a similarity to Wood's (2003) report of students recasting a teacher-planned activity in the classroom to fit within their beliefs of what constituted a valid activity.

One element of the SPG itself that may have contributed to Yuu's belief that the SPG was a teacher-centered device was that a part of the final grade for the course was contingent on completion of the SPG. While this policy was implemented in an attempt to encourage students to seriously engage with the SPG, by enforcing its use through the means of assessment we may have promoted a performance-goal orientation in our learners, reinforcing for students who were already subscribed to discourses related to "teacher as assessor" rather than "facilitator" that the SPG was for the teacher's means, and not for those of the student.

Feedback from the teacher to students in relation to how they are using the SPG may also be problematic, especially if teachers focus (intentionally or otherwise) on the punitive outcomes of not using it rather than emphasizing its potential usefulness for helping develop learning strategies. A lack of feedback could be similarly problematic, as this would not provide opportunities for reflection or would possibly promote beliefs that the SPG is not particularly important.

Concluding Remarks

In this research, we used interviews as our main source of data. One limitation of this approach is that it "does not infer beliefs from actions, but only from intentions and statements" (Barcelos, 2003, p. 19). It may be necessary to expand our line of enquiry to include a more contextual approach (Barcelos, 2003), the aim being to gain a better understanding of how exactly the kind of beliefs that seem foundational are actually influencing students in the act of learning. Developing a strong methodological approach to achieve this is something that needs to be prioritized; an approach similar to that of Navarro and Thornton (2011), that is, observing the relationship between action and belief and understanding how learners themselves account for the relationship, seems appropriate in this respect.

What we can say, based on our findings and their relation to similar studies, is that it would seem to be helpful to encourage students to regularly engage in discussion and reflection on the classroom activities they are involved in and resources they are working with to help reset any discourses that may negatively impact on their learning. The same ideas apply to the teacher too. If students are to be encouraged to perceive resources such as our SPG as a device purposed to help with the development of learning, teachers must be active in delivering this message and also cognizant of the beliefs they themselves contribute to the learning environment.

Bio Data

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Appendix A

Interview Questions

Below are the core questions asked across all interviews. As the interviews were semi-structured, in some instances these questions were expanded on or additional information was elicited.

- How did you choose your semester goal?
- Why did you choose that particular goal?
- Looking back now, are you happy with your goal?
- Did it help you with your study during the semester?
- How did you approach the Study Progress Guide homework?
- Walk us through how you did the homework each week.
- What do you think was the objective of the Study Progress Guide?
- Did using the Study Progress Guide help you in any way with your studies? If so, how, if not, why not?

Appendix B

Example Pages From Study Progress Guide

1. The initial goal-setting page students are asked to complete at the beginning of the course

Introduction to the key pages of the Study Progress Guide

Getting Started

Semester 1

Semester 2

My English goals for the Semester

(Please write this during the first week of the semester 春学期の第１週間目に書いてください）

The ABCD of goals: When it comes to deciding your English study goals, you need to be careful. Coming up with "bad" English goals can actually have a negative effect on your study. Here are some hints for creating "good" English goals.

Good goals should be

Achievable (reasonable for your age and strengths)

Believable (you need to believe you can do it)

Conceivable (clearly stated and measurable)

Desirable (You really want it, and others want it for you)

英語学習目標の決め方〜導入編：英語学習の目標を決める際、気をつけなければならない点がいくつかあります。「悪い」目標に決めてしまうと、学習意欲に悪影響を与える可能性があります。「良い」英語学習目標を決めるコツを覚えましょう：

良い目標は・・・

A. 達成可能なもの〜達成不可能な目標は学習意欲の低下につながってしまう

B. 信じられるもの〜達成できると信じなければならない

C. 明確である〜具体的で、計れるものでなければならない

D. 価値のあるもの〜自分が本当にできるようになりたいと思わなければならない

What are your goals for the class for this semester? Write about them below.

1

2. Mid-semester and final reflection pages

Mid-semester Reflection (*Please write this during the middle of the semester* 春学期の中間頃に書いてください)

Look back at the goals you set at the beginning of the semester. Have you achieved them?

Yes!

- Why do you think you managed to achieve them?
- What did you do that helped you achieve your goal(s)?
- Write down your new goals and how you will achieve them.

Not Really!

- Why do you think you couldn't totally achieve your goals?
- Do you still think your goals are good? Do you still want to achieve them?
  If **yes**, *what do you think you need to do to achieve your goal?*
  If **no**, *write some new goals, and how you want to try to achieve them.*

Final Reflection (*Please write this during the last week of the semester* 春学期の最後の週に書いてください)

Think about the goals that you set to help you with your study (both your semester goals and your unit goals). Did they help you? Why do you think so? What are your English study goals for the future?

2

3. Page students are expected to complete as they work through the semester, incorporating goal-setting, self-study, and reflection activities

Unit 7: ***A Close Shave***	☹	☺	☺☺
1. I can tell stories (personal and/or reported) (あることについての）話をすることができる（自分の話・他人の話）			
2. I can use the phrases to begin a story 教科書で紹介されたフレーズを使って話を始めることができる			
3. I can use the “*past continuous + when + simple past*” pattern when telling stories 話をするときに、「過去進行形＋とき＋過去形」のパターンを使える			
4. I can respond to other people’s stories 他人がする話に対して反応ができる			
5. I understand that /d/+/j/ = /ʤ/ /d/ の音で終わる言葉のすぐ後に /j/ の音で始まる言葉が続いてくると、その二つの音が混じりあって /ʤ/ の音になることを知っている			
6. I understand about disappearing /h/ sounds /h/ の音で始まる言葉が子音で終わる言葉のすぐ後に続いてくるとき、その /h/ の音がなくなることを知っている			
7. I know the key vocabulary items of this unit Unit 7 の重要な語彙を知っている			
8. I can understand the main points of the listening exercise Unit 7 のリスニングパッセージの内容を大体理解できる			

☹: Not at all ☺: Not bad, but need more practice or help ☺☺: I can do this quite well

It's almost time for your final reflection (page 2). Do you think you achieved your semester goals? Why or why not?

English Improvement Goals & Objectives (EI-GO!)

In this unit, I was **strongest** at: ______________________________

And, I was **weakest** at: ______________________________

This week, **what** do you want to improve? **How** will you do this? Write in detail:

____

____

This week’s EI-GO! homework

EI-GO! homework reflection

14

Speaker's Information Territory and Politeness of Japanese Learners of English

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Reference Data:

Trent, N. (2013). Speaker's information territory and EFL politeness strategy of Japanese learners of English. In N. Sonda and A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT 2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT

Some studies on the theory of "speaker's territory of information" (e.g., Kamio, 1979, 1985, 1987, 1990, 1994, 1995, 2002) suggest that native speakers of Japanese are generally aware of territories of information of their own and other people, try to avoid invading other people's territories, and also invite hearers to the speaker's territory by using different forms of sentence modality. This makes Japanese speech sound indirect; using "correct" indirect modality is one of the pragmatic strategies of linguistic politeness in Japanese (Trent, 1997). Building on previous research, this study qualitatively and quantitatively compares the English spoken by Japanese learners of English with that of native speakers of English. The analyses indicate that English produced by Japanese learners is more direct, when viewed through the theory of speakers' information territory. This study of linguistic politeness may contribute to EFL education by enabling students to understand the language culture behind linguistic politeness.

「情報の縄張り範囲」理論（e.g., Kamio, 1979, 1985, 1987, 1990, 1994, 1995, 2002）によると、日本語母語者は、話している事柄が、自分の情報か、話し相手の情報か、共通の情報かなどの認識を文末のモードで表現している。殆どの日本語母語者は情報の縄張りを意識して「常識的な文末の形」を使う傾向がある。これは文法ではないが語用論的には常識であり、相手の情報の縄張りを侵食しないことは日本語の丁寧さ表現のひとつである（Trent, 1997）。今回のリサーチでは「英語の母語者の英語による会話」と「日本語母語者の英語による会話」を量的質的に分析し、両者がどのように情報の縄張り範囲を意識しているかを検証した。結果として、日本語母語者の英会話では「会話相手の縄張り」「共通の縄張り」を含め直接モードが多く、英語母語者にも認められた会話相手の持っている情報への配慮は低かった。情報の縄張り意識の背景にある言語文化的な丁寧さ表現の違いについて学習者に理解を促すことで英語教育への活用が期待できる。

Native speakers of Japanese are often perceived to be indirect or ambiguous. There are many factors behind this cliché, for example, the infrequent use of sentence subjects (especially, *I* and *you*), incomplete utterances ending with *ga* or *keredo*—both literally meaning *but* (McGloin, 1981), and the frequent use of indirect expressions such as *kamo/kamoshirenai* [maybe, might], *doomo* [it looks like/it does not work even though we tried] and *janai/janaika* [isn't it] (Yang & Cao, 2005). One important observation is that Japanese speakers most likely do not intend to be ambiguous; they understand each other without serious ambiguities. Thus, Yang and Cao's observation that people are simply trying to appear less assertive and judgmental seems appropriate. However, outside of the Japanese community, this indirectness can be problematic when the speaker's intention is not clear, or the speaker's contention is misunderstood as being less worthy than it actually is. Being indirect, however, is a universal politeness strategy (e.g., Brown & Levinson, 1987; Searle, 1975), which must also be true in Japanese. While knowing how to be polite in the target language is essential for learners, the influence of politeness strategies from the learners' native language has not been studied methodologically. This research investigates whether the politeness level of English spoken by Japanese learners is significantly different from that of native speakers of English. From among many theories of linguistic politeness, the theory of a speaker's information territory is used in this study. Modality expressions of directness and indirectness are called *evidentials*. Thus, this paper is a study of politeness, sentence modality, and evidentiality expressions of English and Japanese speakers.

Background Theories for Indirect Language

Theories of Linguistic Evidentiality and Speaker's Territory of Information

The linguistic concept of evidentiality is defined as "the linguistic means of indicating how the speaker obtained the information on which he bases an assertion" (Willet, 1988, p. 55). Examples include:

- I saw/heard John sing. (Speaker had direct perceptual access to John's singing.)
- John was allegedly singing. (Evidence is indirect—hearsay.)
- John was apparently singing. (Evidence is indirect—some unspecified source.) (Papafragou, Li, Choi, & Han, 2007, p. 253)

If a speaker has direct evidence that supports his speech, such as witnessing, he may use direct language forms (see, e.g., Chafé, 1986). If he obtained the information indirectly, such as through hearsay, he may use indirect language forms to show his lack of certainty. The use of evidentials is not grammaticized in either English or Japanese; however, speakers of some languages such as Tuyuca in Columbia (Barnes, 1984) show how they obtain information as part of grammar. In English, evidentials are mostly lexical (see Table 1).

Table 1. Examples of English Evidentiality

Type of evidential	English examples
Auxiliaries	may, might, must, would, can, could
Adverbs	certainly, definitely, likely, possibly, probably
Idiomatic phrases	it looks like, it seems
Expressions of hearsay	he told me, according to him
Deductions/inductions	because X, A is B
Sensory information	I saw, I heard, I smelled

In Japanese, evidential expressions are mostly used in sentence endings, making the sentences direct or indirect (see Table 2).

Table 2. Examples of Japanese Evidentiality

Type of evidential	Sub-type	Japanese examples [English translation]
Direct	Direct sentence ending copulas	*da*, *desu*, *masu* [is, are] *mashita*, *datta* [was, were]
	Sentences that end with a noun or adjective	*Kyoo wa atsui*. [Today TOP hot]
Indirect	Auxiliaries	*hazu* [must be, expected] *ni-chigai-nai* [must, without a doubt] *daroo* [probably] *kamo-shire-nai* [maybe, might be]
	Hearsay and inference auxiliaries	*soo* [I heard, I read, I was told] *yoo* or *mitai* [it looks like] *rashii* [it looks like, it seems, I heard, it appears] *daroo* or *deshoo* [probably]
	Question forms	*desuka*?, *nan desuka* ↑, *ka* ↑, *no* ↑ [e.g., is? does? do? are?] *janaika* ↑, *janaino* ↑ [e.g., isn't? aren't? don't? doesn't?] noun ↑, adjective ↑
	Particles and other expressions	*ne* ↓, *no* ↓, *no ne* ↓, *no yo*, *kedo*, *n-dakedo*, *yo*, *sa*, *kara*, *kara ne* [softening sentence endings, "explaining" nuance] *n-desuka* ↓, *wake desu ka* ↓, *da ne* [so I understand] *ne* ↑ [rapportive], *ne*# [sharing], *janai* ↓, *janaika* ↓ [e.g., isn't it ↓, doesn't it ↓]

Note. TOP = Topic marking particle; ↑ = rising tone; ↓ = falling tone; # = level tone

Regarding direct and indirect sentence endings, Japanese psychologist Akio Kamio (1979, 1985, 1987, 1990, 1994, 1995, 2002) proposed the theory of speaker's information territory. Initially, he argued that Japanese speakers unconsciously assume four different information territories when speaking (see Table 3), and suggested that Japanese speakers use direct evidential forms only for information in their own information territory. Kamio (1994) characterized information in the speaker's territory. In this study, the following modified list of characteristics (as used in Trent, 1997, p. 190) determines if information is solely owned by the speaker. Speakers are supposed to have privileged access to information with the following characteristics:

- information obtained through the speaker's past and current direct experience through visual, auditory, or other senses, including the speaker's emotion or thoughts;
- information about people, facts, and things close to the speaker, including information about plans, actions, and behavior of the speaker or other people whom the speaker considers close, and information about places with which the speaker has a geographical relation;
- information embodying detailed knowledge that falls within the speaker's area of expertise; and
- information that is unchallengeable by the hearer due to its historically and socially qualified status as truth.

Table 3 presents a simplification of the relationship between the Japanese sentence ending forms and information in different information territories proposed by Kamio.

In these sample sentences, the particle *ne* [isn't it?] forms a negative question requesting agreement (rapportive-*ne*) or confirms that information is shared (confirmative-*ne*). *Ne* marks the speaker's intention to provide background information or new information as though already known to the hearer (McGloin, 1980). Thus, *ne* shows the speaker's willingness to share information (McGloin, 1980, 1981; Kamio, 1979, 1985, 1987, 1990, 1994); sentences ending with *ne* in B and C territories in Table 3 are indirect. Expressions such as *deshoo* or *daroo* [probably, isn't it?], and *janai* [isn't it?] are also used to express willingness to welcome hearers into the speaker's information territory. The territory of information shared by the hearer seems to be important to the speaker (see Figure 1). This may be related to the group-oriented culture of Japanese society. Studies of anthropology and anthropological linguistics often relate the traditional concept of *uchi* [inside] versus *soto* [outside] with honorific language (e.g., Hall, 1976; Witzel, 1984; Ando, 1986; Ting-Toomy, 1982). Showing respect by not imposing on others is an important politeness strategy (e.g., Brown & Levinson, 1987). Showing camaraderie (Lakoff, 1974) and presupposing common ground

Table 3. Four Basic Information Territories of Japanese

Territories of information	Examples of information [English translation]		Sentence ending forms
A. Speaker's information territory	頭が痛いです。 [I have a headache.	*Atama ga itai desu.* head NOM hurt COP]	direct form
B. Information is completely shared by both parties	いい天気ですね。 [It is a fine day, isn't it?	*Ii tenki desu ne.* good weather COP CONF]	direct form + *ne*
C. Hearer's information territory	お疲れのようですね。 [You seem to be tired.	*O tsukare no yoo desu ne.* HON tired seem COP RAPP]	indirect form + *ne*
D. Information is outside of both parties' territories	明日は雨らしいです。 [I heard it is going to rain tomorrow.	*Asu wa ame rashii desu.* tomorrow TOP rain seem COP]	indirect form

Note. Particles: NOM = nominative; COP = copula; CONF = confirmative; HON = honorific; RAPP = rapportive; TOP = topic

(Brown & Levinson, 1987) are also recognized as politeness strategies, and emphasis on the shared information territory plays a similar role.

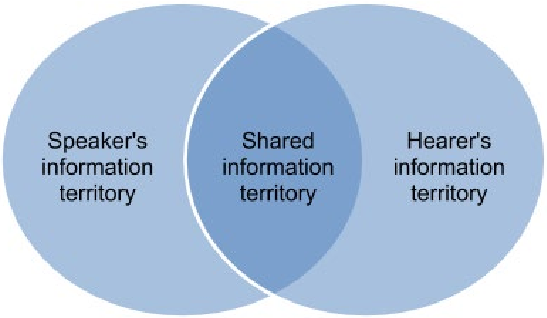


Figure 1. A Japanese Speaker Is Sensitive to the Information Shared With Hearers

Although Kamio (1995) later subdivided territories A and C (see Table 4), his idea significantly explains the indirectness of Japanese: Japanese speakers use direct sentence ending forms (e.g., *da* or *desu*) only with A territory information and use indirect forms for information from other territories. Kamio assumed six different Japanese information territories "given the assumption that information takes values between (and including) 1 (full knowledge) and 0 (no knowledge) on the speaker's and hearer's scales" (p. 239). S > H indicates that the speaker assumes that information belongs more to S (speaker) than to H (hearer). S = H indicates that information falls equally into both parties' territories. S < H indicates that the information is in the hearer's territory.

Table 4. Six Territories of Information (Kamio (1995), Modified by Author)

Case	Definition of case	Sentence ending form	Interpretation
A	1 = speaker > hearer = 0	direct form	Speaker's information territory
B	S = H =1	direct-*ne* form	Information shared by the speaker and hearer
AB	1 = S > H	*daroo* form	Speaker's information territory but speaker expects hearer also knows about the topic
CB	S ≤ H = 1	*daroo* form	Hearer's information territory but speaker also knows about the topic less than or as well as the hearer
C	0 = S < H = 1	indirect-*ne* form	Hearer's information territory; speaker does not have knowledge
D	1 > S, 1 > H	indirect form	Outside both parties' information territories

To verify Kamio's theory, Trent (1997) collected conversational data from 94 native Japanese speakers in speech situations including formal discussion, informal chats, public speech, classroom conversation, and courtroom utterances. Nearly 7,000 analyzable sentence ending forms were classified into the six information territories. Quantitative analysis of the data supports Kamio's theory of speaker's territory of information, demonstrating that excluding the speaker's own information territory A, speakers of Japanese use indirect sentence ending forms almost universally (Table 5).

Table 5. The Model of Japanese Evidentiality

Type of propositional information	**Sentence ending evidentials used across all speech situations**
A. Falls only in the speaker's information territory	direct forms: *da, desu* direct forms + vocative *no, yo, n-da, kedo* direct forms + rapportive-*ne* ↓
AB. Falls in the speaker's information territory, but the hearer <u>may have</u> some knowledge	tag-questions with falling tone: *daroo* ↓ , *janai* ↓
B. Falls in both the speaker's and hearer's information territories	sharing *ne#* confirming *ne* ↑ tag-questions with rising tone: *daroo* ↑ , *janai* ↑
CB. Falls in the hearer's information territory, but the speaker has some knowledge	tag-questions with rising tone: *daroo* ↑ , *janai* ↑ questions: *ka* ↑ , *no* ↑
C. Falls only in the hearer's information territory	questions: *ka* ↑ , *no* ↑
D. Falls in neither the speaker's nor the hearer's information territory	hearsay: *sooda, kiita, dasooda*, etc. inference: *yooda, mitaida, rashii*, etc.

Note. ↓ = falling tone; ↑ = rising tone; # = level tone

It can be assumed that, living in the Japanese language culture, Japanese learners of English may transfer this concept of indirect utterances to their English. If so, discrepancies may arise between English native speakers' concept of information territories and that of Japanese learners. Kamio (1990) stated that English native speakers have only two information territories: a territory to which the speaker has direct access and one to which the speaker does not. Kamio argued that a modality equivalent to Japanese-style "direct + *ne*" or "indirect + *ne*" does not exist in English because the mode of English sentences can be interpreted more freely. Kamio (1990, pp. 43-46) listed the following examples to demonstrate that English sentences describing information in both the speaker's and hearer's territories are usually spoken in direct mode:

- It's a beautiful day.
- You've taken good care of me.
- George was released from the hospital.
- Your home is very close to campus.

Through the following examples, Kamio also showed that English sentences describing information out of the speaker's territory are spoken in indirect forms:

- You <u>seem</u> to have forgotten that.
- I <u>hear</u> your son is a medical student at Harvard.
- <u>Isn't</u> your mother from California?
- Your dream <u>may</u> come true.
- Jane <u>looked like</u> she was feeling bad.

Kamio (1990) suggested that English native speakers do not use indirect forms for shared information, unlike Japanese native speakers. However, since this observation was based on Kamio's experiential judgment, analysis of actual data would be useful to identify differences between the use of the two languages. To this end, the English spoken by English native speakers and Japanese learners of English were compared.

Method

From four lengthy conversations within the Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English Part 2 (Du Bois, Chafe, Meyer, Thompson, & Martey, 2003), 1,408 analyzable sentences were collected. Conversation #15 is a conversation between a couple and their friend regarding travelling and family, #16 is between an electronic store salesman and customer, #17 is between two students regarding alternative views of technology, and #24 is between a couple playing games.

From conversational data of 50 Japanese learners of English (three groups of 20, 20, and 10) in college-level speaking classes in 2012, 527 sentences were collected. Data was collected during two classroom activities: (a) in pairs, learners talked about their summer, reported their partner's experiences, and answered questions from their classmates and teacher; and (b) learners talked with the teacher individually. Topics included everyday life, hobbies, relationships, and travel.

Although topics were selected to induce utterances using different territories of information, conversations often diverted to tangential topics. Conversations were recorded. In speech situation (a), each group talked for 30-45 minutes. In speech situation (b), each student had a 10-15 minute conversation with the teacher. Students were encouraged to ask questions and make natural conversation. However, due to the social status difference between teacher and student, learners tended to avoid personal questions in (b), which limited data analysis on some information territories. Levels of learners ranged from beginner to lower intermediate. Evidential forms were analyzed and classified into the six assumed information territories introduced in Table 5.

Results of Data Analysis and Discussion

English Spoken by Native Speakers of English

As Table 6 shows, in territories A, AB, and B, where speakers have authorized access, native speakers of English used fairly direct modes, indicating their belief that direct forms are appropriate when they know the information is true, even when the knowledge is shared by the hearers.

Table 6. Evidential Forms used in English Conversation by Native Speakers of English: Speaker's Territories A, AB, and B

Types of propositional information	Evidential forms	
	Direct	Indirect
A. Falls only in speaker's information territory	78.8%	21.2%
AB. Falls in speaker's information territory, but hearer <u>may have</u> some knowledge	74.0%	26.0%
B. Propositional information falls in both the speaker's and the hearer's information territories	84.6%	15.4%

Note. See Appendix A for details.

For example, in Extract 1, Joanne describes her Caribbean tour to her friend Lenore. Obviously, Lenore also has been there, so the information is shared, but Joanne uses direct expressions describing the place. So, Lenore reminds Joanne that the information is shared.

Extract 1

Joanne: The…the Caribbean is incredible. (Territory B—direct form)

Lenore: …Resort.

Joanne: It's just this beautiful, beautiful, blue water. (Territory B—direct form)

Leorne: I know. (Territory A—direct form)
I know the Caribbean is incredible. (Territory A—direct form)

In Extract 2, Joanne talks about her mother, who belongs to Joanne's territory of information (A). However, she also talks in direct forms about her boyfriend Ken when talking to him. Since the matter is about him, even though she is making observations about him, the information should be in Territory AB, not Territory C, due to her close relationship with Ken.

Extract 2

Lenore: So your mother's happy now? (Territory C—indirect form)

Joanne: My mother's never happy. (Territory A—direct form)
My mother wouldn't be happy if everything was. . .
But she's miserable. (Territory A—direct form)
Cause that's just the way she is. (Territory A—direct form)
It's kind of like you, Ken. (Territory AB—direct form)

Ken: That's . . . not at all like me Joanne. (Territory A—direct form)

Joanne: No reason to be miserable. (Territory AB—direct form)

Ken: (SWALLOW)

Joanne: You have no reason to be miserable. (Territory AB—direct form)

Ken: I'm . . . first of all I'm not miserable. (Territory A—direct form)
And secondly. . .

Lenore: He's a happy person. (Territory CB—direct form)

In Extract 2, Joanne's direct expressions to Ken about himself could be considered showing her power and authority over him (Fox, 2001), but similar utterances in Japanese would be expressed indirectly, such as with *janaino*? or *mitai*. Unexpectedly, results showed that native speakers of English tended to use more direct expressions when discussing shared B territory information than when talking about topics in A territory. This may suggest that emphasis on "shared character" is important in English conversation.

For example, in Extract 3, Michael and Jim talk about their common field, technology. While they share this information territory, they also share information in this field. Most of the conversation is in direct forms.

Extract 3

Jim: Yeah, or, because it recognizes your phone number, (Territory B—direct form)
It automatically goes into the computer, finds that, (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: Yeah,

Jim: and, and names the name. (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: That simple.

Jim: Thank you Mister Smith, for calling Pacific Bell. (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: Yeah, right. (Territory B—direct form)

You know.

Jim: I am your personal computer representative. (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: That'd be great. (Territory B—direct form)

Jim: Well, the networking of computers is getting, uh, such that, you know, almost anything's possible. (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: Yeah,
That's why I like it. (Territory A—direct form)

Jim: It's just matrixing, and, just, constantly, building and building, upon building upon building, on these complexities, and building controllers for the . . . (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: and

Jim: and building on top of those. (Territory B—direct form)

Michael: And you're building on the thoughts of the . . . your predecessors. (Territory B—direct form)

Direct forms seem natural as they build their theory of computer philosophy together. In Japanese, however, indirect sharing forms such as *janai*?, *desho*?, or *ne* would most likely be used in similar conversations.

On the other hand, native speakers of English used indirect modes for information in CB and C territories, which are hearer's information territories, and D territory, which consists of third party information (see Table 8). When speaking about CB territory information, speakers predominantly use question forms, and when speaking about C territory information, speakers do not use direct forms even when speakers have some knowledge.

Table 7. Evidential Forms Used in English Conversation by Native Speakers of English: Speaker's Territories C, CB, and D

Type of proposition	Evidential forms	
	Direct	Indirect
C. Falls only in the hearer's information territory	8.3%	91.7%
CB. Falls in the hearer's information territory, but the speaker has some knowledge	52.7%	47.3%
D. Falls in neither the speaker's nor the hearer's information territories	47.4%	52.6%

Note. See Appendix B for details.

Extract 4 is a typical example of talking about territory C information.

Extract 4

Jennifer: We need a –

Jennifer: Do you have any sharp objects on you? (Territory C—indirect)

Dan: No. (Territory A—direct)

Dan: Keys? (Territory C—indirect)

Jennifer: No. I need like a little pin or something. (Territory A—indirect)
You have a pencil? (Territory C—indirect)

Dan: You have anything in your hair? (Territory C—indirect)

Jennifer: No. (Territory A—direct)

For D territory information, indirect forms are used half of the time. Thus, even though native English speakers do not choose indirect forms as much as Japanese speakers speaking Japanese, both parties seem to share a similar concept of D territory.

Extract 5 is between an electronics shop salesman, Brad, and his customer, Tammy. Tammy is looking for a CD player, and Brad explains how his other customers use their CD players. He uses both indirect and direct forms to express information about his customers' territory. This information, however, may be in his own territory, as professional information.

Extract 5

Brad: They don't play tapes that much. (Territory D—direct)

Tammy: Year, that's the same with me, too. (Territory A—direct)
I'm really into CD's now. (Territory A—direct)

Brad: Unhunh . . . yeah.

Tammy: So. . .

Brad: But they have a couple of these box sets of uh. . . (Territory D—direct)

Tammy: Right.

Brad: Symphonies.

Tammy: Right.

Brad: And, then I think they even have a couple books on tape. (Territory D—indirect)

English Spoken by Japanese Learners of English

The limited data suggest that the learners were predominantly direct in dealing with information that belongs to territories A, AB, and B, to which they had direct access, or where information was shared with their hearers. In Extract 6, speakers Mari and Junko discuss places they want to visit. Mari uses direct forms about France, which she learned about in class, and does not acknowledge that Junko, who has actually been there, might share that knowledge.

Extract 6

Mari: I like French food. (Territory A—direct)

Junko: Oh, me too. (Territory A —direct)
Have you been to France? (Territory C—indirect)

Mari: No. (Territory A—direct)
I study French language. . . .Yes, since last year. (Territory A—direct)

Junko: Cool. . . Do you learn about French culture too? (Territory C—-indirect)

Mari: It is very different from Japan. (Territory AB—direct)
And I want to go Eiffel Tower. (Territory A—direct)
And people are loose, I mean, the time. (Territory AB—direct)
The bus don't come on time. . . (Territory AB—direct)
I don't like it. (Territory A—direct)

While the Japanese learners spoke indirectly in Japanese about shared topics (see Trent, 1997), they used direct English forms for information shared by their hearers (see Table 8). There were not enough analyzable utterances in this study to draw conclusions for territories CB and C information, but as for territory D, third party information, over 65% of the utterances were expressed in direct forms. However, there were certainly indirect expressions when speakers showed psychological distance between themselves and territory D information. In Extract 7, the teacher asked a learner about whom she respects, and the speaker treated the information as Territory D information although she used both direct and indirect modes.

Extract 7

Learner: Ah . . . Neko Hiroshi, runner. (Territory A—direct)

Teacher: I think I know him, mmm, perhaps. (Territory A—indirect)
I heard his name at least. (Territory A—direct)
Is he the one who got a foreign citizenship? (Territory CB—indirect)

Learner: He could not challenge Olympic in Japan, because he, ah, I know that only. (Territory D—direct)

Teacher: Why not in Japan? (Territory D—indirect)

Learner: Maybe . . . maybe, Japan has many strong runners, so he goes to Cambodia and he wants to be a runner. (Territory D—indirect)
I do not know many things, but . . . maybe he, he, his score, it was, he has score don't touch Olympic level. (Territory D—indirect)

Table 8. Evidential Forms Used in English Conversation by Japanese Learners

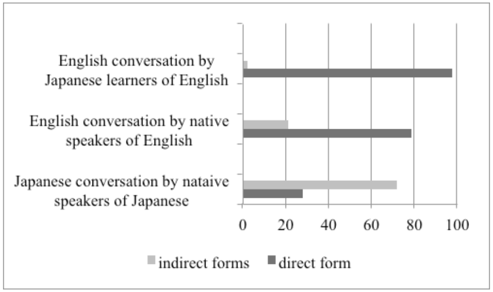
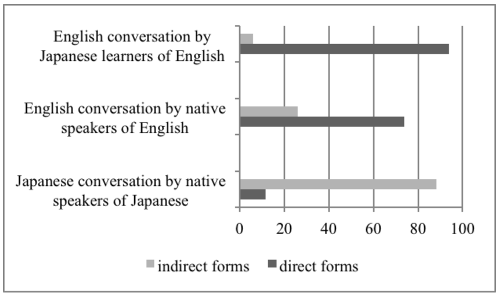
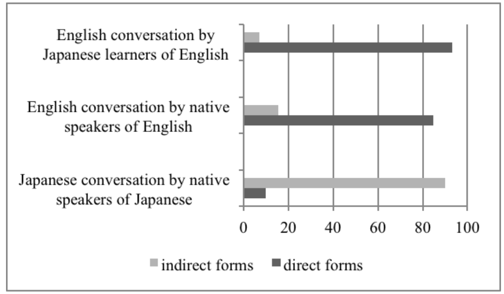
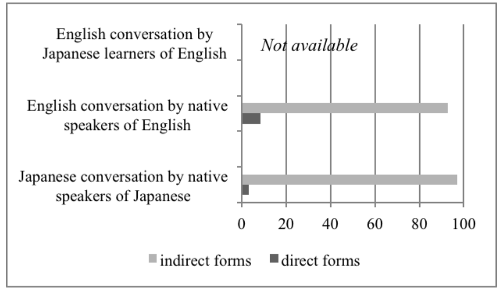
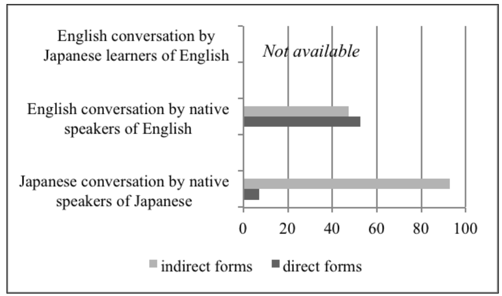
Type of propositional information	Evidential forms	
	Direct	Indirect
A. Falls only in speaker's information territory	97.8%	2.2%
AB. Falls in the speaker's information territory, but the hearer <u>may have</u> some knowledge	94.0%	6.0%
B. Falls in both the speaker's and the hearer's information territories	93.1%	6.9%
C. Falls only in hearer's information territory	N/A	Data size is too small. Direct form with rising tone (1 time) Question forms (7 times)
CB. Falls in hearer's information territory, but the speaker has some knowledge	N/A	Data size is too small. "I think" (1) "I don't know, but" (1)
D. Falls in neither the speaker's nor the hearer's information territory	65.5%	34.5%

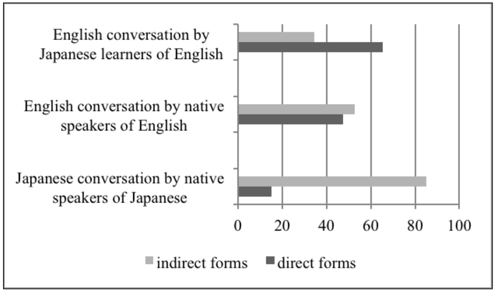
Note. See Appendix C for detailed information.

Table 9 compares direct and indirect evidential forms used by three groups of speakers: (a) Japanese learners of English speaking in English, (b) native speakers of English speaking in English, and (c) native speakers of Japanese speaking in Japanese (see Trent, 1997). Differences include:

- Japanese learners speaking in English used direct mode mostly in territories to which they had direct access—A, AB, and B territories—as well as D territory for third party information.
- Native speakers of English used direct modes in territories to which they had direct access—A, AB, and B territories—but were indirect in expressing hearer's information (CB) and indirect half the time in hearer's (C) territory and other people's information territory (D).
- Among the three types of conversations, Japanese spoken by Japanese native speakers was most indirect in all territories of information.

Table 9. Evidential Forms Compared Between Japanese Learners of English and Native Speakers of English

<table>
<tr><th>Type of propositional information</th><th>Direct/indirect evidential forms used by speakers</th></tr>
<tr><td>A. Falls only in speaker's information territory</td><td>
</td></tr>
<tr><td>AB. Falls in the speaker's information territory, but the hearer <u>may have</u> some knowl-edge</td><td>
</td></tr>
<tr><td>B. Falls in both the speaker's and the hearer's information territories</td><td>
</td></tr>
<tr><td>C. Falls only in hearer's information territory</td><td>
</td></tr>
<tr><td>CB. Falls in hearer's information territory, but the speaker has some knowledge</td><td>
</td></tr>
</table>

D. Falls in neither the speaker's nor the hearer's information territory	

Note. See Appendix D for details.

Table 9 suggests that when speaking in English, Japanese learners did not use language modality to show that they were aware of other people with access to information in AB, B, and D territories. This may cause problems because native speakers of English make more indirect statements for shared information, and therefore, may misinterpret Japanese learners' directness as rude. As discussed earlier, being properly indirect is a basic universal politeness strategy. Speaking in their native language, Japanese learners of English will be carefully indirect toward information in all territories except territory A. No significant language cultural transfer from the learners' native language was observed regarding information territories.

Yet, some learners in this study showed that they acknowledged the possibility that their hearer possessed knowledge about the conversation topic. For example, some learners used the inquiry "Do you know?" as an interjection: e.g., "Yeah, her boyfriend is Shun Oguri, a very famous actor. He is . . . Do you know?" This may indicate that speakers care about their hearers' knowledge on the topic. Similarly, the expression "I don't know" was often interjected as an independent phrase: e.g., "She was accepted by a few universities . . . and they are good . . . Oh, I don't know." This suggests that speakers felt that their information may not be correct, thus implying a lack of confidence in their information despite their direct speech style.

Conclusion and Suggestions for English Teaching

Several problems may have influenced the results of this study. The data came from 50 Japanese learners and only nine English speaker subjects. Although the English conversations from the Corpus were carefully chosen to represent generally occurring conversations, speakers inevitably had personal word and expression preferences. In addition, 1408 analyzable evidential forms were collected from the nine native speakers of English whereas only 527 were collected from the learners. Naturally, English native speakers talked more than the learners. This may have increased the impact of the native-speaker subjects' personal preference. Thus, future studies need data from more native speakers to reduce the influence of individual predilections.

There are several potential explanations for Japanese learners' use of direct modes in English. Primarily, learners may not have sufficient English skills to express a socially acceptable distance between them and the information they describe. Some examples of skills that would help learners include:

Practical knowledge of modality expressions (e.g., *may*, *might*, *must*, *likely*, *seem*, *look*, *probably*, *apparently*, and *certainly*) would be most helpful. Introductory level learners often do not utilize hedge words to avoid overgeneralizations (e.g., "Japanese are monolingual") and thus tend to sound overly direct. English textbooks, and EFL education in general, tend to emphasize the ability to express oneself, and overlook the importance of appropriately nuancing speech in accordance with social context.

Reporting skills can help make learners' statements more indirect and appropriate. Learners in this study rarely indicated the sources of their information. This tendency strikes a contrast with native English speakers, who often explicitly acknowledge the source (e.g., "according to the morning paper") and describe the event in direct forms (Trent, 1998). Introductory level learners used direct modes to express what they knew, and rarely acknowledged their source of information.

It should be emphasized that although Japanese native speakers' usage of indirect Japanese evidentials is most significant, they do not mean to be ambiguous, and although English native speakers use more direct evidentials, this does not mean that they are more aggressive than Japanese speakers. The psychological modality of utterances cannot be analyzed, but the words they choose can; there must be many other factors of language culture that influence the mode of utterances. However, comparing the use of a language by different groups of people may shed light on these factors. Introducing indirect expressions, expressions to show awareness of shared information, the concept of the close relationship between indirectness and linguistic politeness, and the importance of acknowledging information sources may improve learners' ability to deal with social contexts appropriately.

Bio Data

Nobuko Trent holds degrees in English (BA), Japanese (MA), and foreign language education (PhD). Her primary fields of focus include discourse grammar and politeness studies.

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Appendix A

Supplemental Information for Table 6

Evidential forms used in English conversation by native speakers of English: speaker's territories A, AB, and B

Type of proposition	Conversation #15 (3 speakers)	Conversation #16 (2 speakers)	Conversation #17 (2 speakers)	Conversation #24 (2 speakers)
A. Falls only in speaker's information territory	**direct forms: (229) 84.8%** indirect forms: *I think/I guess* (4) *Looks (like)* (18) tag question (1) *you know* (18)	**direct forms: (127) 76.5%** indirect forms: *probably* (2) *you know* (12) *I think* (4) *I mean* (6), *may* (1) *maybe* (3), *would* (10) *could* (1)	**direct forms: (47) 53.4%** indirect forms: *I think* (5) *you know* (36)	**direct forms: (66) 93%** indirect forms: *I think* (3) *maybe* (1) *might* (1)

Type of proposition	Conversation #15 (3 speakers)	Conversation #16 (2 speakers)	Conversation #17 (2 speakers)	Conversation #24 (2 speakers)
AB. Falls in speaker's information territory, but hearer may have some knowledge	**direct forms: (53) 71.6%** indirect forms: *I think* (5) question (5) *maybe* (1) *probably* (2) *kind of* (1) *you know* (7)	**direct forms: (36) 76.6%** indirect forms: *you can* (1), *like* (1) *you'd say* (1) *you know* (1) *probably* (1) *I think* (5) *I believe* (1)	**direct forms: (50) 69.4%** indirect forms: tag question (2) neg. question (1) *I think* (5) *maybe* (2) *might* (6) *seems* (1) *you see* (1) *could be* (1) *you know* (5)	**direct forms: (49) 59.0%** indirect forms: question (5) *looks like* (1) *might* (1) *I think* (1) *probably* (1) *I wonder* (1)
B. Falls in both the speaker's and the hearer's information territories	**direct forms: (68) 87.0%** indirect forms: *I think* (4) *should be* (1) *I'm sure* (1) question (5) *you know* (8)	**direct forms: (28) 84.9%** indirect forms: *as you know* (1) *kind of* (1) *looks* (1) *I think* (1) *should be* (1)	**direct forms: (60) 90.9%** indirect forms: *I mean* (1) question (4) *I think* (1)	**direct forms: (81) 86.1%** indirect forms: *maybe* (2) question (9) *kind of* (1) *right?* (1)

Note. ( ) indicates the number of occurrences of the particular form. Bold indicates dominant form.

Appendix B

Supplemental Information for Table 7

Evidential forms used in English conversation by native speakers of English: Hearer's territories and third party territories C, CB, and D

Type of proposition	**Conversation #15 (3 speakers)**	**Conversation #16 (2 speakers)**	**Conversation #17 (2 speakers)**	**Conversation #24 (2 speakers)**
C. Falls only in hearer's information territory	direct forms: (5) indirect forms: **question (44) 86.3%** *sounds like* (2)	direct forms: (1) indirect forms: **question (8)** **tag question (1) 80%**	direct forms: (1) indirect forms: **question (10) 91%**	direct forms (2) indirect forms: **question (34) 94.4%**
CB. Falls in hearer's information territory, but speaker has some knowl-edge	**direct forms: (18)** indirect forms: **question (9)** neg. question (2) *I think* (2)	**direct forms: (7)** indirect forms: **questions (3)** *I wonder* (1) *maybe* (1) *sounds like* (1) *you know* (1) hearsay (1) *I think* (1)	direct forms: (0) indirect forms: question (1)	direct forms: (4) indirect forms: question (3)
D. Falls in neither the speaker's nor the hearer's information territory	**direct forms: (25) 61%** indirect forms: *I think* (6) neg. question (3) question (2) *doubt* (1) *I don't know, but* (1) *maybe* (1) *probably* (1) *I wonder* (1)	**direct forms: (4) 50%** indirect forms: *I think* (2) *you know* (1) *like* (1)	direct forms: (24) 41.4% indirect forms: *may* (2) *maybe* (3) *I think* (9) *seem* (3) question (2) *probably* (3) *could* (1) *you know* (5) *like* (5) *I know* (1)	direct forms: (2) indirect forms: question (5) *sounds like* (1) tag question (1)

Note. ( ) indicates the number of occurrences of the particular form. Bold indicates dominant form.

Appendix C

Supplemental Information for Table 8

Evidential forms used in English conversation by Japanese learners of English

Type of proposition	Sentence evidential forms
A. Falls only in speaker's information territory	**direct forms: (279) 97.8%** indirect forms: *maybe* (1) direct forms with rising tone (1) *I think* (3) *I don't know, but* (1)
AB. Falls in speaker's information territory, but hearer <u>may have</u> some knowledge	**direct forms: (79) 94.0%** indirect forms: *maybe* (1) *I think* (2) *do you know?* (2)
B. Falls in both the speaker's and the hearer's information territories	**direct forms: (27) 93.1%** indirect forms: *I think* (2)
C. Falls only in hearer's information territory	indirect forms: questions (7) direct forms with rising tone (1)
CB. Falls in hearer's information territory, but speaker has some knowledge	indirect forms: *I think* (1) *I don't know, but* (1)
D. Falls in neither the speaker's nor the hearer's information territory	**direct forms (78) 65.1%** indirect forms: *maybe* (18) *I think* (5) *I don't know, but* (11) *do you know*? (2) *seem* (1) *sound* (1) *looks like* (1) hearsay (1) *I know* (1)

Note. ( ) indicates the number of occurrences of the particular form. Bold indicates dominant form.

Appendix D

Supplemental Information for Table 9

Evidential forms compared between Japanese learners of English and native speakers

Type of proposition	English conversation by Japanese learners of English	English conversation by native speakers of English	Japanese conversation by native speakers of Japanese (Trent, 1997: 234-244)
A. Falls only in speaker's information territory	**direct forms: 97.8%**	**direct forms: 78.8%**	**direct forms:** **(*da, desu*) 28%** direct forms + vocative (*no, yo, n-da, kedo*) direct forms + rapport <u>*ne*↓</u>

Type of proposition	English conversation by Japanese learners of English	English conversation by native speakers of English	Japanese conversation by native speakers of Japanese (Trent, 1997: 234-244)
AB. Falls in speaker's information territory, but hearer may have some knowledge	**direct forms: 94.0%**	**direct forms: 74.0%**	**semi-direct forms: 88.4%** tag-questions with falling tone: *daroo* ↓ , *janai* ↓ direct forms: 11.6%
B. Falls in both the speaker's and the hearer's information territories	**direct forms: 93.1%**	**direct forms: 84.6%**	**indirect forms: 90%** sharing *ne#* confirming *ne* ↑ tag-questions with rising tone: *daroo* ↑ , *janai* ↑ direct forms: 10%
C. Falls in hearer's information territory, but the speaker has some knowledge	questions tag questions direct form with rising intonation	**indirect forms: 91.7 (including questions 89.7%)** direct forms: 8.3%	**indirect forms: 97%** question *ka* ↑ , *no* ↑ direct forms: 3%
CB. Falls only in hearer's information territory	*I think* *I don't think*	**direct forms: 52.7%**	**indirect forms: 93%** tag-questions with rising tone: *daroo* ↑ , *janai* ↑ question *ka* ↑ , *no* ↑ direct forms: 7%
D. Falls in neither parties' information territory	**direct forms: 65.5%**	**direct forms: 47.4%**	**indirect forms: 85%** hearsay: *sooda, kiita, -dasooda,* inference: *yooda, mitaida, rashii* direct forms: 15%

Note. Bold indicates dominant form. ↑ = rising tone; ↓ = falling tone; # = level tone

Student Creativity and Language Performance

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In this paper I discuss the basis for investigating the relationship between student creativity and second language acquisition. I then present results from a study looking at the relationship between assessed student creative behaviour (using an adapted form of the Creative Behaviour Inventory) and creative self-efficacy, student performance in initial placement tests, and two speaking tasks from near the beginning and near the end of a semester. The subjects were 58 first-year students in a Japanese university, divided into a higher group and a lower group by initial assessment test. Results suggest that students who are more creative may respond relatively better to more open-ended task-based methods of teaching. They also give some support to the idea that more creative students may do relatively worse in either tests or test-based pedagogies.

本稿では、学習者のクリエイティビティと第二言語習得の関連性について行った基本的な調査の結果について述べる。調査内容は、Creative Behaviour Inventoryを本調査に合うよう修正したもので、日本の大学で学ぶ1年生58名を対象に、受講前の英語力テストを基準として上位層、下位層にわけて実施した。該当者の創作活動の評価と自己効力感との関連性、学期開始前のプレースメント結果、学期開始時ならびに終了時のスピーキング課題2件も調査対象とした。調査結果からは、創造性の高い学習者ほど、自由回答式でタスクベースの教授法に対して反応が比較的によいことが明らかになった。また、そのような学習者ほど、その創造性とは対照的に試験での得点が得られず、試験中心の教授法には向いていないことも把握できた。

In this paper I first discuss the relevance of "creativity" to second language acquisition, and definitional problems that arise in the language acquisition literature. I then turn to the psychological literature and consider how the field of creativity studies can provide us not only with a clearer central definition, but also with some tools for assessing individual creative aptitude and creative behaviour. After considering the few studies that have applied some of these tools to language acquisition, I describe a study examining the relationship between self-assessed creative aptitude, self-reported creative behaviour, and student performance in an assessment test and speaking tasks.

Creativity: A Paradoxical Neglect

Is there a relationship between creativity and language learning? Swann and Maybin (2007) stated that in "one sense, creativity may be identified broadly as a property of *all* language use in that language users do not simply reproduce but recreate, refashion, and recontextualise"

(p. 491; emphasis added). Clarke (2005) reported the common belief among educators that "creativity is an integral part of Modern Foreign Languages" (p. 1). Creative use of language in "language play" has been shown as key to relationship building both in L1 (Carter, 2004) and with advanced L2 speakers (Belz & Reinhardt, 2004). Anecdotal evidence (Al Jarf, 2007; Holmes, 2001; Smith, 2011) has suggested that creative writing activities improve quantity and quality of output as well as student motivation.

Furthermore, Albert and Kormos (2004) argued that changes in language pedagogy towards communicative methods and task-based learning increase the importance of student creative behaviour. Traits such as imagination, flexibility, and risk taking become increasingly important. In general, education systems are now recognising the importance of creative thinking for learning (Dörnyei, 2005).

It is therefore disappointing that in terms of empirical research, the relationship between student creativity and L2 acquisition has been "almost entirely neglected" (Albert, 2012, p. 145). I consider a couple of the most notable pieces of research below. One reason for this neglect may be the prejudice that creativity cannot or should not be measured or assessed, and that educators view it as a "fuzzy, soft construct" (Plucker, Beghetto, & Dow, 2004, p. 86), not fit for rigorous empirical research.

A related issue is the looseness with which people in education talk about creativity. For example, Clarke's 2005 survey of higher education teachers showed a bewildering diversity of ideas regarding creativity ("the dynamic in the process of life that enables us to find ever new ways of living together in and with the world" is one instance). Creativity more generally is often fused with other general concepts such as self-actualisation and liberation from constraints, or even madness (Cropley, 2001; Plucker et al., 2004). This does not seem a strong base upon which to conduct quantitative empirical research.

I argue that central to these problems of research is a lack of engagement on the part of language educators with the large and growing body of creativity research. Researchers largely based in psychology, with substantial input from business studies, have been developing analyses and assessments of creativity and creative behaviour for several decades. Although certain popularising writers, such as Boden (1993), have received some attention, the general approaches, as well as some of the key findings, have been surprisingly underutilised by EFL and ESL studies, even as we stress the importance of introducing creativity into the classroom.

Defining Creativity

Although historically there has been wrangling over definitions, Mumford (2003) wrote that "over the course of the last decade we seem to have reached a general agreement that creativity involves the production of novel, useful products" (p. 110). This broad definition helps to organise different approaches. The word *novel* can be unpacked to create a shifting contextual scale from historical creativity (great inventors, artists, etc., as found in Csikszentmihalyi, 2007) through professional creativity, such as architects designing new but not ground-breaking buildings, to personal creativity—new to the individual creator, regardless of broader originality (Kaufman & Beghetto, 2009). In language education, student creativity is not simply the production of language and ideas that impress the teacher or others, but also the production of ideas and expressions that are new for the students themselves—the creativity that Swann and Maybin (2007) described.

Useful does not necessarily imply practical utility, but rather *value*: A catchy song, a groundbreaking piece of historical research, or a successful (tasty) improvised recipe from the contents of a near-empty fridge are all examples of creativity. As such, creativity is not simply equivalent to *divergent thinking* (the generation of many diverse ideas), despite a widely held prejudice that it is (Dietrich, 2007). Idea evaluation is also key to creativity (Runco, 2008), as are items such as sensitivity to problems. In short, *convergent* thinking (a search for the best idea) is also important (Cropley, 2006). As language is in no small part about using conventions rather than ignoring them, we may even find that divergent or anticonventional thinking styles have a negative impact on language acquisition if they are not accompanied by an appropriate evaluative ability.

In addition to the definition given by Mumford above, a second useful framework divides creativity into aspects, typically the "four Ps" of product, place, process, and person. *Product* refers to how things become labelled creative—typically the assessment by peers or judges in any particular field. *Place* refers to environments that encourage or discourage creativity, including the impact of rewards, motivation, management style, and goal setting. *Process* refers to how people produce creative work, including ideational techniques, incubation, recursiveness, and so on. *Person* refers to a person's own creative tendencies, abilities, and background (whether some people are more creative than others), and is the focus of the present study.

Assessment of Creative Aptitude

Just as creativity in general can be broken down into different aspects, *personal creativity* is also complex. It can refer to innate creative ability measured by a test, much as intelligence is assessed through IQ tests, to someone's tendency to attempt creative solutions or employ creative strategies, to a person's tendency to participate in creative activities (e.g., their choice of hobbies), or to someone's demonstrated success in real-world creative endeavours (involving assessment by judges or peers of the originality and value of their achievements). While no doubt interrelated, these different facets of creativity are not the same. For example, the assessment of personal creative ability or creative thinking preferences will never be a perfect predictor of future creative behaviour: What leads people to produce or participate in creative work depends on a variety of factors (the four Ps mentioned above). Researchers therefore need to be clear which facets they are measuring and take care not to conflate them. The study described below, for example, looks at self-assessed generalised creative ability (creative self-efficacy) and reported creative behaviour.

One also needs to be aware of two issues that research has shown can impact on someone's ability to be creative. The first issue is domain competence: Although the extent of the effect is disputed, it is clear that (usually formal) training in a domain (e.g., physics, music, art) significantly aids creative work (Simonton, 1997). People who are highly creative in one area are often much less so in others simply because their expertise is much less. As such, we need to be wary of the English level of students when comparing their relative creativity assessments. Less creative people with better English may outperform more creative people with worse English, even in creative tasks.

The second issue is the relationship between creativity and general intelligence. Although independent constructs, there is some evidence that creativity and intelligence assessments correlate fairly closely until above average levels (Runco, 2008). In assessing the relationship between creativity and language learning, we need to be aware that the better language competence of "more creative" students may be a reflection of their general intelligence rather than their creativity.

Given that there are different facets to personal creativity, there are several different ways that it is assessed. A common approach is the use of innate ability tests that focus largely on divergent thinking, such as the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Kaufman, Plucker, & Baer, 2008, pp. 25-31), in which, for example, subjects are asked to develop pictures from abstract shapes. These tests, judged by trained assessors, consider the fluency (volume of ideas), elaboration (development of ideas), flexibility (ability to change frames of reference), and originality (how unlike other test-takers). These tests have good inter-rater reliability and allow us to examine different aspects of a person's thinking style. However, they rely on models of which particular thinking styles lead to successful creativity rather than direct measures of real-world creative ability or behaviour.

Another method is assessment of subjects by others, typically people who know the subject well (such as acquaintances or teachers). The advantage of this approach is that it is a global measure, rather than one based on theorised components of creative behaviour such as the Torrance Tests. However, such an approach has been found to have serious bias problems (Kaufman et al., 2008). A third general approach is to use self-assessment through standardised questionnaires. People may be asked to reveal their thinking styles or rate their creative achievements in life. The current study employs two such approaches: the Creative Behaviour Inventory (CBI) and creative self-efficacy.

The CBI lists a number of activities and asks the respondents how often they have done them. Activities include performing music in public, designing clothes, inventing recipes, and so on. The version used here was adapted and shortened from Hocevar (1980) to fit with activities that I felt applied to 1st-year university students in Japan. The relationship of the CBI to assessed creative ability is not strong (Kaufman et al., 2008). However, it is a widely used measure that allows us to consider easily observable creative behaviour in our students, of both more open-ended divergent (painting, writing poetry, etc.) and more goal-oriented convergent (inventing recipes, writing computer programs) types, as well as performance activities such as dancing and acting. As such it allows us to examine the relationship between student performance and the popular conception of creative individuals.

The creative self-efficacy questionnaire asks respondents directly how creative they are and is based directly on the form used by Beghetto (2006). It is comprised of three statements with which respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement: "I have a lot of new ideas," "I have a lot of good ideas," and "I have a good imagination." The scores for each are added up to give an overall creative self-efficacy score. Despite its simplicity, self-efficacy has been related to creative ability and creative behaviour (Beghetto, 2006). Using this test in conjunction with the CBI allows us to assess how well they fit together: One would expect there to be a significant correlation between the two surveys (people who engage in creative activities are not likely to be hopeless at them), although the strength of that relationship, given the caution of Kaufman et al. (2008), may or may not be strong.

It should therefore be made clear that in this study there are two different operationalisations of creativity. One measures the *behaviour* of students: how much they participate in creative activities where, one presumes, they are called upon to employ creative thinking strategies. This is one sense in which we commonly talk of a creative person. The other operationalisation measures self-assessed creative *ability*. Here participants are not asked how often they engage in creative acts, but how good they are when they do.

Previous Research Into Creative Aptitude and Language Learning

As noted above, there have been very few studies that directly examine the creative tendencies of students and their foreign language proficiency. The most notable ones come from Hungary, of which I discuss two here. In the first, Ottó (1998) looked at 34 secondary students in two different classes (aged 14-15 and 15-16) taught by the same teacher using communicative methods in a Hungarian secondary school. He used an adapted form of the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking to assess originality, sensitivity to problems, ideational fluency, and associational fluency, and compared these individually and collectively to the grades that students achieved. He found a reasonably strong and significant correlation between grades and all creativity measures, particularly sensitivity to problems and ideational fluency. In his conclusion he suggested that in language education there was a bias towards creative students that needed to be addressed for the sake of fairness.

The second study, by Albert and Kormos (2004), looked at 67 secondary school students with intermediate-level English in two different schools, with full data for 35 of them. The authors used a standardised creativity test widely administered in Hungary and similar to the Torrance Tests and compared it to the students' performances in narrative task results. They found few correlations between creativity scores and student performance on a variety of measures, such as lexical diversity, word count, and accuracy. Assessed originality significantly correlated with narrative complexity with a coefficient of 0.34 and, of more interest to the current study, measured creative fluency significantly correlated with the number of words produced in a task with a coefficient of 0.33. However, assessed originality had a significant *negative* correlation with word count of more or less the same strength (-0.34). They concluded that creativity is a multi-faceted trait with ambiguous impacts on student language production.

What the current study can add to these studies is fourfold. First of all, it looked at students fresh from high school who generally have come from a much less communicative teaching environment. Japanese English education in high schools is highly test-oriented, with an emphasis on rote learning and a certain degree of grammar-translation. Secondly, it used different measures of creativity—creative self-efficacy and the CBI. Thirdly, it looked at the impact of communicative teaching over the course of a semester by measuring spoken output at the beginning and end. That is, it was longitudinal. Fourthly, it considered two groups of students differentiated by their test-assessed English ability. As creativity may be closely correlated with IQ until higher levels of IQ, the influence of general intellectual ability may be mitigated somewhat. In addition, competence in English will mediate the effects of creativity. On the other hand, the current study was more limited in scope, considering only two kinds of measure of student ability: placement and word length of speech (fluency).

Research Questions

1. What is the relationship between students' placement tests and their creativity scores?

Dörnyei (2005) noted findings that test-like conditions inhibit creativity. On the other hand, students' overall English ability, which may be aided by a more creative approach, might counter this, unless test-based learning has disadvantaged creative students or nullified the advantages creative behaviour might otherwise bring to language learning. A secondary question is whether students in the higher group display greater creativity as a group because of the relationship with intelligence.

2. What is the relationship between students' creativity scores and their L2 fluency?

As a longitudinal study, there are two different effects we are looking for here. The first is the relationship between creativity and fluency after only a short period of communicative teaching. We might expect a positive relationship given that the task is open-ended, although one must also consider the possible legacy of a less communicative learning experience in secondary education. The second effect is the impact of a communicative class on improved student fluency. If the proposition that communicative teaching advantages creative students is correct, the difference should emerge over time.

The Study

The participants consisted of two groups of 1st-year university students majoring in international relations and international culture. These groups were streamed using a standardised test into the top and second-top groups in a four-group course (to be called upper group and lower group). They received three 90-minute English lessons a week, one of which was a listening and speaking class, the others being grammar and reading. The general placement test consisted of multiple-choice questions looking at vocabulary, grammar, and reading. These standardised scores provide one of the data points for this study. There were 24 students completing the questionnaires in the upper group, and 34 in the lower group.

In their speaking course, the students were taught the same course by the same teacher (the author) using the textbook *World Link Book 2* (Stempelski, 2006). Each unit consists of vocabulary study, video comprehension exercises, conversation practice, focus on form, and a task of a pre-practised, open-ended speech, similar to short speeches students had watched on the course DVD, performed with no notes. In Albert and Kormos' 2004 study, students had 5 minutes to prepare the speeches and they expressed concern that even a short preparation time might limit the importance of creativity, but I think this confuses creativity in general with spontaneity in particular.

In the first unit students were asked to talk about a favourite memory or keepsake, in the third, a mystery or ghost story from their hometown or, alternatively, the country in general. As the results show, the third speaking task generally produced shorter speeches. However, it is the relative length of each speech among students that is of interest.

I recorded and transcribed the speeches myself. Word counts for each speech were done using Microsoft Word, as a measure of fluency, following guidelines from Albert and Kormos (2004). In addition, a third measure was created by subtracting the first word count from the third to produce a measure of relative change. This number could be positive or negative, depending on whether the student spoke more in the third speech, and it allowed comparisons between students. Due to absences for either or both of the recordings, for the word count analysis the upper group sample was 17 students, and the lower group sample was 25 students.

At the beginning of the following semester, the students were asked to fill out two surveys: the creative self-efficacy questionnaire (three questions) and the adapted CBI (18 questions). Both surveys were translated into Japanese by a native Japanese speaker highly proficient in English, and then checked for naturalness and comprehensibility by a second native Japanese speaker who had not seen the English versions, with a couple of negotiated adjustments in phrasing (Japanese and English versions are in Appendices A and B respectively). For the CBI, as well as using a global score, certain behaviours were put into three groups: *divergent* ones that clearly required more open-ended creativity (such as painting or writing a poem), *convergent* ones that required more convergent thinking (a specific result had to be achieved, such as writing a computer program to do something or designing a good recipe), and ones that were *performance*-related (playing music in public, acting, etc.). Details are in Appendix C.

Results and Discussion

Correlations presented are bivariate Pearson correlations with two-tailed significance. Coefficients marked with * indicate a $p < 0.05$, ** indicate $p < 0.01$. Calculations were done using PSPP software. Following Urdan's (2010, p. 80) view of social science data, I shall treat significant -.20 and .20 as representing a weak relationship, correlations between .20 and .50 (positive or negative) as representing a moderate relationship, and above .50 (positive or negative) as representing a strong relationship.

Creativity Measures in the Two Groups

There was no significant difference between the two sets of creativity scores (self-efficacy and reported behaviour) between the groups (Table 1), although the upper group displayed marginally higher scores on all measures except performance behaviour and how many good ideas they reported having. This result is mildly surprising, given the probable relationship between creativity and intelligence. It offers weak support to the idea that creative tendencies act as a drag on test-based language learning. For both groups, the self-efficacy total score correlated significantly ($p < 0.01$) with the total CBI score, with correlation coefficients just under 0.5 (result not shown), indicating a moderate to strong relationship. Unlike the evenly balanced self-efficacy scores, the CBI appears to be skewed towards more female tasks in the divergent category of items (Table 2). However, the word counts and differences between them showed no relationship to gender, so this may not adversely affect the overall results. However, future CBI item lists need to be altered to reduce this imbalance.

Table 1. Measures of Creativity by Group

Variable	Mean	*SD*
Self-efficacy: New ideas		
Upper group:	2.96	1.27
Lower group:	2.74	1.05
Self-efficacy: Good ideas		
Upper group:	2.71	1.23
Lower group:	2.74	0.96
Self-efficacy: Imagination		
Upper group:	3.50	1.25
Lower group:	3.24	1.16
Self-Efficacy: Total		
Upper group:	9.17	3.50
Lower group:	8.71	2.62
Divergent		
Upper group:	14.08	5.05
Lower group:	13.50	4.60
Convergent		
Upper group:	6.71	2.37
Lower group:	6.41	2.24
Performance		
Upper group:	8.75	2.72
Lower group:	8.97	3.05
CBI total		
Upper group:	39.29	11.58
Lower group:	38.21	10.99

Note. Upper group $n = 24$; Lower group $n = 34$

Table 2. Average Creativity Scores by Sex

Measure	Sex	Mean	*SD*
New ideas	Female	2.79	1.27
	Male	2.88	.97
Good ideas	Female	2.70	1.16
	Male	2.76	.97
Imagination	Female	3.36	1.25
	Male	3.32	1.14
Self-efficacy total	Female	8.85	3.21
	Male	8.96	2.75
Divergent	Female	15.45	4.96
	Male	11.48	3.40
Convergent	Female	6.64	2.63
	Male	6.40	1.76
Performance	Female	9.45	2.54
	Male	8.12	3.21
CBI total	Female	41.55	12.18
	Male	34.84	8.41

Note. Female $n = 33$, Male $n = 25$

Placement Tests and Creativity Measures

The placement tests overall showed no correlation with creativity (Table 3). However, the lower level group's placement scores showed a significant and strong negative correlation with the CBI ($p < .05$), particularly in relation to more divergent and to a slightly lesser extent more convergent creative behaviours. This suggests there may be different effects of creativity between students of higher and lower ability, and that for students not at the top end of the ability range, certain creative styles may hinder either test taking or language learning in a more test-based pedagogy.

Creativity Measures and Word Counts

For the upper group, no significant relationship overall was found for either the first or third speech word counts (Table 4). However, within this, higher self-efficacy ratings correlated significantly and with a moderate to strong relationship with a higher score on the difference between the word counts. For the lower group, the third speech word count showed a moderate significant relationship with self-efficacy, particularly with people who considered themselves as having good ideas. There was also a moderate positive correlation between the CBI, particularly with divergent behaviours, and the difference in

Table 3. Correlations Between Placement Test and Creativity Scores by Group

	New ideas	Good ideas	Imagination	SE Total	Divergent	Convergent	Performance	CBI
Placement	.20	.14	-.01	.13	-.17	-.04	-.02	-.14
Upper group	.35	.38	.01	.26	.05	.27	.27	.16
Lower group	-.05	-.22	-.09	-.14	-.54**	-.51**	-.33	-.59**

Note. $N = 58$; Upper group $n = 24$; Lower group $n = 34$
** $p < 0.01$

word counts. This suggests that for both levels, more creatively inclined students may respond better relative to others to more communicative teaching and open-ended tasks. However, we should note the two different operationalisations of personal creativity here. For the upper group, students who rated themselves as creative showed significant improvement, while for the lower group, this was true for students who reported greater creative behaviour. A unifying interpretation of these results could be that students who rate themselves better at employing creative thinking strategies (upper group) and students more accustomed to employing creative thinking strategies (lower group) benefited more from the mode of instruction.

Issues in the Study

There are some words of caution in considering these results. Firstly, the second task may in itself have required more creativity than the first, meaning that the relatively better scores of those more creative students may be a function of the task and not general ability. Secondly, it is possible that my teaching style may itself be biased towards more creative personalities. Thirdly, while word counts are a measure of the quantity of language output, there are more sophisticated measures of fluency that could be used, such as *t*-counts. Fourthly, fluency is, in any case, only one measure of language ability, and it is more clearly related to measures of creativity than are diversity of vocabulary, accuracy, or complexity of structure. Lastly, the timing of the self-efficacy questionnaire may have influenced students' self-assessment, as they had experienced success (or failure) with one semester's university teaching.

Conclusion

This was an exploratory study using simple-to-administer creativity measures and only two measures of student performance. However, significant moderate relationships were found be-

Table 4. Correlations Between Word Counts and Creativity Scores by Group

Word count	Placement	New ideas	Good ideas	Imagination	SE Total	Divergent	Convergent	Performance	CBI
WC 1									
Upper group	.11	-.25	-.17	-.16	-.20	.31	.02	.25	.17
Lower group	-.25	.01	.05	-.14	-.03	-.17	.09	-.13	-.13
WC 3			.						
Upper group	.06	.32	.41	.43	.40	.40	-.01	.41	.29
Lower group	-.07	.34	.42*	.24	.41*	.35	.40*	.17	.40*
Difference									
Upper group	-.09	.51*	.48*	.48*	.50*	-.09	-.04	.00	.00
Lower group	.21	.24	.26	.31	.33	.43**	.21	.25	.42*

Note. Upper group $n = 17$; Lower group $n = 25$
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

tween student self-assessed creativity and relative fluency performance over time, suggesting that creative students particularly benefit from open-ended task-based learning. There was also a clear negative relationship between lower level students' reported creative behaviour and their initial test scores. This raises questions both about the impact of testing and test-based education on creative students, and on the methods we use to place them in the more communicative style courses taught at university. We might also question, as did Ottó (1998), whether, in the move to communicative teaching, we are unfairly disadvantaging students who are generally less creative.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my colleague Seiko Oguri for her assistance in translating the questionnaires.

Bio Data

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Appendix A

Survey on Creativity

このアンケートは、XX大学指導のもと、外国語を学ぶ方法と創造性との関係を研究するための一環として行われるものです。

このアンケートに関するあなたの回答内容は、厳粛に保護されます。個々のアンケート内容を研究するために各個人に番号がふられていますが、これらの個人を特定できる情報はアンケートとは別で厳重に保管されます。個人が特定されるような名前などはアンケート用紙に一切書かないようお願いいたします。

このアンケートに回答しても、回答しなくもXX大学からの成績評価には一切影響しません。

このアンケートに対する疑問や質問についてはスミス・キャメロン　(casmith@lc.chubu.ac.jp) まで直接ご質問ください。

このアンケートは10分以内に回答できる程度のものです。どうかできるだけ正直に回答してください。

番号: ____________________________

Part 1

以下の文章を読んであなた自身にどのくらいあてはまりますか。該当すると思われる番号に○をつけてください。

	あてはまらない				あてはまる
例:	1	2	3	4	5
私は新しいアイディアを思いつくのが得意だ。	1	2	3	4	5
私はいいアイディアをよく思いつく。	1	2	3	4	5
私は想像力が豊かなほうだ。	1	2	3	4	5

Part 2

あなたがしたことのある頻度を答えてください

	全くない	1回	2〜3回	4〜5回	6回以上
絵を描いたことがある	1	2	3	4	5
歌詞や曲を書いたことがある	1	2	3	4	5
お祭りなどの飾り付けを自作したことがある	1	2	3	4	5
ダンスの振り付けをしたことがある	1	2	3	4	5
漫画やアニメを描いた事がある	1	2	3	4	5
オリジナルレシピの料理を作ったことがある	1	2	3	4	5
コンピュータプログラムを自分で作成したことがある	1	2	3	4	5
短編小説を書いた事がある	1	2	3	4	5
詩を書いたことがある	1	2	3	4	5

	全くない	1回	2～3回	4～5回	6回以上
ジョーク、コメディ、お笑いのネタを書いたことがある	1	2	3	4	5
科学分野の活動で賞をもらったことがある	1	2	3	4	5
舞台で演劇を演じたことがある	1	2	3	4	5
アクセサリーを自作したことがある	1	2	3	4	5
演劇、ダンス、祭りなどの衣装の製作に関わったことがある	1	2	3	4	5
自分で衣類をデザインまたは縫ったりしたことがある	1	2	3	4	5
人前で音楽を演奏したことがある	1	2	3	4	5
自分のため、また人のためにおもちゃを造ったことがある	1	2	3	4	5
人前でダンスを踊ったことがある	1	2	3	4	5

Many thanks for your cooperation!

ご協力ありがとうございました。

Appendix B

Translations of the Survey Questions

Creative Self-Efficacy:

How much are the following statements true for you personally:

	Not at all				Very true
I am good at coming up with new ideas.					
I have a lot of good ideas					
I have a good imagination					

Creative Behaviour Inventory:

How often have you:

	Never	Once	2 or 3 times	4 or 5 times	6 or more times
Painted a picture					
Written a song (words or music)					
Made your own festival decorations					
Choreographed a dance					
Drawn cartoons or manga					
Cooked an original dish					
Written an original computer program					
Written a short story					

	Never	Once	2 or 3 times	4 or 5 times	6 or more times
Written a poem					
Written something funny, such as jokes or a comedy sketch					
Won a prize for a science project					
Acted on stage					
Made your own accessories					
Helped to design costumes (for a play, dance, festival etc.)					
Designed or made your own clothing					
Performed music in public					
Made toys for yourself or for others.					
Performed a dance in public.					

Appendix C

Divergent, Convergent, and Performance Thinking Measure Components from the Creative Behaviour Inventory

Divergent (open-ended)	Convergent (specific end)	Performance
1. Painted a picture 2. Written a song (words or music) 5. Drawn cartoons or manga 8. Written a short story 9. Written a poem 13. Made your own accessories	3. Made your own festival decorations 6. Cooked an original dish 7. Written an original computer program 11. Won a prize for a science project	12. Acted on stage 16. Performed music in public 18. Performed a dance in public

Students' Beliefs About the Function of EFL in Higher Education

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Reference Data:

McMahon, J. (2013). Students' beliefs about the function of EFL in higher education. In N. Sonda & A. Krause (Eds.), *JALT2012 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.

This study examined the language learning beliefs of 76 university students. The primary aims were (a) to provide evidence on the views students have of the role of English in higher education as informed by their perceived future language needs, (b) to achieve a more thorough understanding of the specific content students feel they need in their studies, and (c) to develop and validate a questionnaire that would serve these purposes. The results show that the respondents valued conversational-based course content benefitting the English needs of their future occupations, as well as oral skills practice over writing practice. A principal finding of the study was the existence of fundamental mismatches between certain student beliefs, institutional policies, and what teachers suggest is beneficial EFL study, which could have negative implications for the language classroom. However, awareness of student beliefs can inform course planning and instruction.

この研究では主に以下の三つの目的で76名の学生の言語学習における信条を検討している。(1)学生が必要とする外国語スキルを知り、『高等教育における英語学習の役割』の学生の見解を明らかにする。(2)学生が英語学習の中で何を必要と考えているのか、より具体的な理解をする。(3)以上の内容を確認・証明できるアンケートの作成。アンケートの結果は、学生がライティングより、会話やスピーキングの授業が将来仕事で役に立つと信じていることを判明した。また、この研究を通して、学生が考える学ぶべきこと、大学が教育に必要としている中身、教師が有益なEFL学習と推奨する内容、この3つの間の根本的なずれを発見した。この結果は外国語を学ぶ教室の中で矛盾が存在しかねないことを意味している。しかしながら、学生が外国語学習で何に重点をおいているかを理解することは、コース立案および授業の形成に役立てることができると言えるだろう。

Learner beliefs have long been recognised as an important construct in language-learning research. Identifying these beliefs and their effect help to determine the approaches to course design, class activities, and teacher instruction that can engage students positively. Although the amount of research conducted into learner beliefs is growing, it remains an underexplored variable affecting language acquisition, with a number of factors having received only brief attention.

The aim of this study was to investigate how students view the function of EFL at university. To determine how students perceive English study, it is essential to redirect the strategic focus from previous belief research. Some studies have looked at the *wants* of students yet have only highlighted student longing for games, songs, and fun, with a de-emphasis on content. More in-depth responses could be garnered by having the students focus on their *needs*. This is all the more necessary given that the purposes of English study are often unclear for those in non-

English majors. In order to understand student beliefs about the function of university English, we should attempt to elicit what class content or activities they believe to be important and why.

Literature Review

The Nature of Learner Beliefs

All foreign language learners hold various beliefs. These beliefs can be about the nature of language, the tasks they encounter both inside and outside the classroom, and the learners' own perceived abilities in learning a language (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). In any given second or foreign language classroom, students can hold a vast range of beliefs, from how long it takes to achieve language fluency, to the best techniques for learning a language, to whether they will ever achieve a native-like accent.

Beliefs are viewed as understandings that can be formed by a learner's educational experiences (Dole & Sinatra, 1994), or as a part of the learner's understanding of their learning goals and needs (Flavell, 1987). These beliefs will culminate in the learner's conception of what their language studies should encompass and will in turn influence their attitude and motivation towards their classes, with their expectations, satisfaction, and commitment all dependent on the fulfillment of such beliefs (Horwitz, 1988).

Research Into Learner Beliefs

A few influential studies laid the groundwork for understanding learner beliefs in a range of settings (Horwitz, 1988; Kern, 1995; Wenden, 1986), and subsequent studies have utilised their methodology in numerous cultural and educational contexts. Horwitz (1988) developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to study the beliefs of typical groups of foreign-language learners in the USA and to create teacher and researcher awareness of the variety of beliefs that learners hold. She believed that certain beliefs could possibly affect students' ability to learn a second or foreign language, and also have consequences for instruction (p. 284). The BALLI contained 34 belief statements with which students were asked to select their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale. The findings showed consistency in the beliefs of learners of different target languages and that, as a determiner of the diversity of students' opinions, the BALLI can be helpful to teachers in a variety of settings. The instrument became popular and was used in a large number of belief studies.

In Japan, variations on the BALLI have featured regularly in research on English learning beliefs, their utilisation ranging from the incorporation of a few of its items (O'Donnell, 2003; Tanaka & Ellis, 2003), to the use of many context-sensitive modifications of its items (Riley, 2009; Sakui & Gaies, 1999), to instruments made entirely of its items (Burden, 2002; Jones & Gardner, 2009). However, the tendency for belief research in Japan to generally follow the template set out by the BALLI has caused any areas outside of its scope to remain only partially explored after two decades, indicating little in the way of alternative methodology. Beliefs about the function of EFL in higher education are one area that has yet to receive significant attention, although aspects of it have been partly covered by the range of beliefs covered in the BALLI-influenced studies.

Sakui and Gaies (1999) developed an instrument that consisted of items compiled from a number of existing instruments used in belief research, as well as a few original items. Their findings lend support to the view that Japanese university learners of English were perhaps shifting towards a greater approval of communicative-oriented pedagogy and away from traditional approaches. The majority of participants agreed that they would have many opportunities to use English in their lives and that English would help them to get a good job. To this end, they felt that speaking and listening activities were more beneficial to their studies than reading and writing.

Additional studies revealed that students understand the importance of English communication and are eager to improve their speaking ability. The students also indicated that some of their more preferred topics for communication are culture (Riley, 2009), social issues, and everyday-life situations (Matsuura, Chiba, & Hilderbrandt, 2001). Nevertheless, research has yet to probe deeply into students' understanding of what communicative content specifically comprises. Most students conveyed the usefulness of speaking practice, but to assume this to mean general conversation could be incorrect. Given the recent development of many forms of specific-purpose study, student beliefs may alter greatly when confronted with different speaking tasks in the classroom. The same applies to listening, reading, and writing. For empirical results on the skills that students prefer to practice to have greater relevance in an actual classroom setting, the skills need to be divided into their various academic-, occupational-, and survival-oriented constituents, or study forms.

Methodology

Research Questions

In order to achieve the aims of the study, two specific research questions were posed:

1. What do Japanese university students believe they will need English for in their future careers and lives?
2. What types of English study do they believe they require in order to meet their needs?

Participants

A total of 76 students from a private university in Hyogo Prefecture, Japan, participated in the study. The majority were in their 2nd year of study (93%) with the remainder in their 3rd year. The participants were 57% female and 43% male, with all but one student in the 18 to 21-year-old age bracket. None of the students was an English major, as I wished to collect data from learners who perhaps did not see an obvious need for English in their studies. The participants' majors were Law (40%), Sociology (24%), Business (18%), Political Science (11%), Law / Political Science (3%), Finance (3%), and Media (1%). Four classes were selected by the university to participate, all which met my requirements.

Instrumentation

It was decided that an original, well-constructed questionnaire would be the most useful instrument for collecting data. In order to fulfill the study aims, the questions and response options needed to represent the broad range of content in English courses in an exploratory manner, as well as address the student view on *importance* and *needs*. By applying some of the methodology of needs analysis (NA) research conducted in university English programs, a questionnaire could be created that would better address the research questions than common belief research methodology. Data collected on student beliefs about their English needs would in turn reflect their feelings on the importance of different types of class content.

Steps were taken to ensure the relevance of the questionnaire content following several approaches taken by Sakui and Gaies (1999). The most important step was to compile a thorough yet concise collection of English study types common to universities in Japan and common uses for English in the students' lives following graduation. Initially, existing instruments used in belief studies were examined for relevant or adaptable items. The list was then expanded by a comprehensive review of local language journals from the past decade. A number of instruments used in NA research were then reviewed, which aided the creation of additional items and revision of existing items. Two studies in particular, Chia, Johnson, Chia, and Olive (1999) and Mazdayasna and Tahririan (2008), used questionnaires that broke down the four language skills into separate components, many of which I modified for use in a non-field-specific instrument.

Lambert (2010) built a consensus of task types common across workplace domains, as faced by Japanese graduates in their careers. A number of the tasks were deemed relevant to this study, including locating information, translating, and interpreting. Takakubo (2002) also provided an inventory of future English needs and tasks in a Japanese context and targeted both academic and general uses for the language.

Subsequent measures in augmenting the questionnaire's content were then undertaken. Ten English instructors currently working in Japanese universities were invited to judge the relevance of the study items in university programs, based on the raters' own knowledge and experience. They needed to decide whether the items were suited to university study as opposed to high school or language school syllabi. The instructors were also asked to consider which types of study content most benefitted each of the future needs. Following a few raters' comments on possibly overlooked items in the survey, *extensive reading* was added to the list. There were also concerns raised about some items being too broad in scope, therefore some wording was modified to make the items more focused.

From the steps listed above, a final group of 12 future English needs and 19 types of study content was created. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the level of need and importance, respectively. The 19 content types were also used in a section which asked students whether they felt they needed more or less of each form of study in their current classes.

The instrument was then translated into the students' L1 and was piloted with 38 second-year students enrolled in non-English majors at a different university, to test both the understanding of the instructions and items and the time required to complete all of the sections. The pilot study went smoothly with no discernible problems for the students. (For the final questionnaire see the Appendix.)

Data Collection

The questionnaire was administered in a 5-day period near the beginning of the semester. The students' regular English instructors administered the questionnaire. None of the attending students knew of the survey beforehand, and all of them agreed to participate, finishing in approximately 15 minutes.

Data Analysis

The mode was calculated for each item in sections using the Likert scale, at each point on the scale. For the remaining section on study needs, percentages were calculated according to how often students selected a particular response option.

Findings

Figure 1 shows how the participants responded when asked about the English abilities or future uses for English they felt they would need in their lives. From left to right, the chart shows the responses from strongest to least perceived need.

Communicative needs for travel, work, and social interaction were consistently selected high on the scale, and many of the higher-rated needs related to work in Japan. In conjunction with the section on future needs, the responses to the second section on content of English study they believed to be most important for students at their university (shown in Figure 2) display the student belief that speaking is the most necessary skill to acquire.

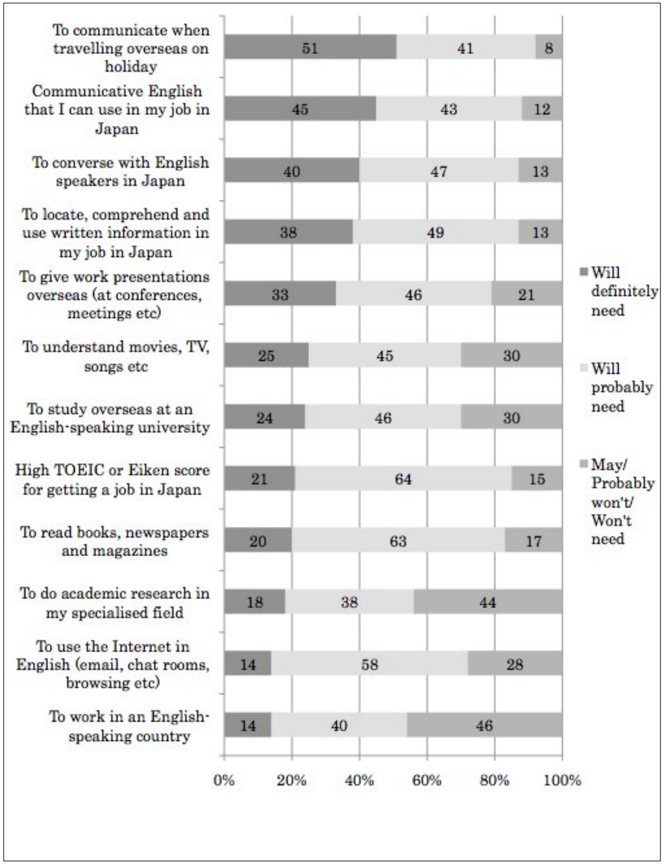

Figure 1. Future English Needs (N = 76)

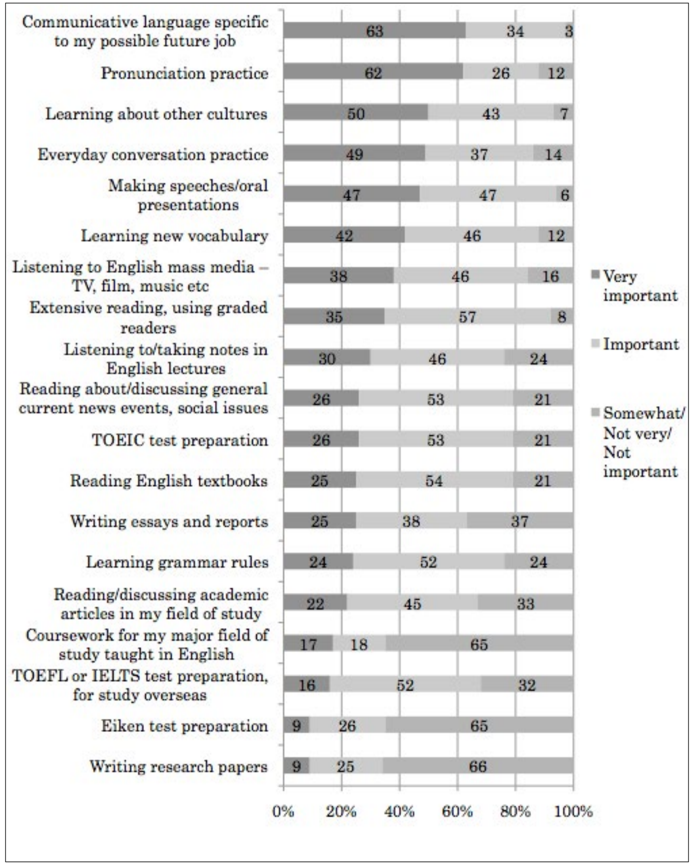

Figure 2. Most Important Content of English Study (N = 76)

Noticeably, speaking study content that would serve occupational needs was deemed slightly more important than that linked to improving general conversation ability. If we are to rank the importance of the four language skills for students, the following order is discernible: speaking, reading and listening, writing.

The same types of study content were also used in the next section, asking students about their current study needs, the findings of which are presented in Figure 3. The types are listed according to what percentage of students believed the types needed to feature more in their classes. The ordering of types closely mirrors Figure 2, displaying a consistency of opinion.

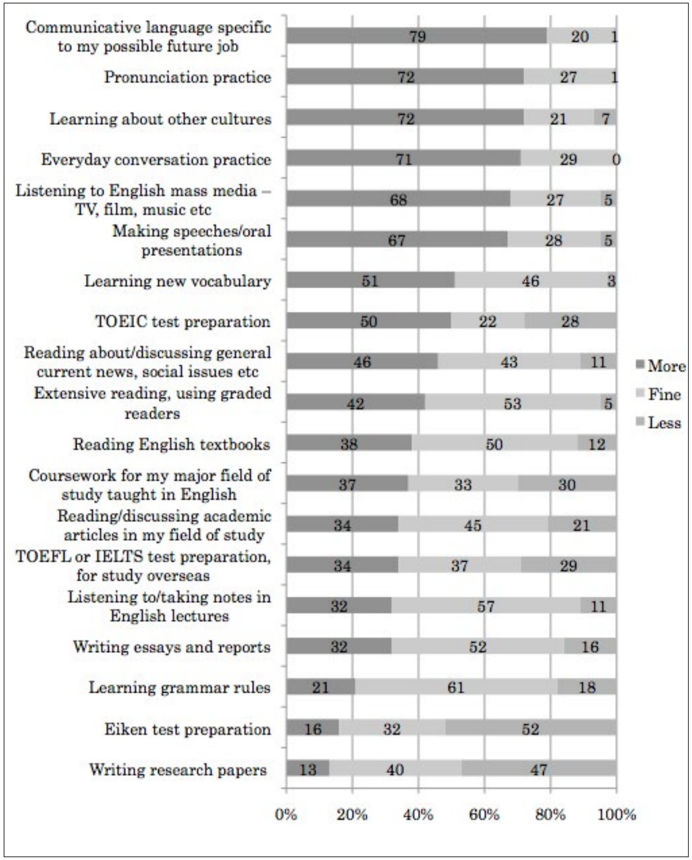

Figure 3. Study Needs for Present English Classes ($N = 76$)

Discussion

Student Preconceptions About Future English Needs

The first research question addressed the students' perceived future English needs. The 12 items in the questionnaire covered common uses of English for EFL students in the areas of travel, work, study, research, entertainment, and general use. Although it was anticipated that the findings would display a student tendency to recognise the need for general-use English conversation over other uses of the language, the results indicate that they consider English for occupational purposes within Japan to be equally or even more important for them, with three of the five most highly-rated needs directly related to work (*using job-related communicative English, using written information at work*, and *giving work presentations*).

This could be a reflection of industry's push in recent years for graduates with a good English ability. Students would likely understand that a good grasp of English for international communication would raise their chances of gaining employment. A development, often perceived as a drawback, of this industry push is the growing use of TOEIC scores by Japanese companies as a measure of English ability and as a hiring requirement and the washback effect this has had throughout the education system. Despite this, there was not a strong belief amongst the students that a high TOEIC score was a necessity for increasing their chances of employment within Japan.

Student Preconceptions About English Study

The second research question was concerned with the correlation between the students' perceived future English needs and the English they believe they require in their university studies in order to meet those needs. The findings here need to be considered carefully. An overwhelming majority of the students indicated that their future uses for English would involve communication: for work, when travelling abroad, and when interacting with native English speakers in Japan. They then demonstrated the belief that their studies should be communication based, with importance placed on conversation practice, workplace communication, giving speeches, pronunciation, and learning about other cultures. Although this gives the impression that the students had a reasonable understanding of what types of study can improve communicative ability, it is possible that this might be a reflection of the nature of language learning that they have experienced. As their previous language studies would have included a lot of rote learning and translation into Japanese, it may be the case that the things they think they need are the things they have never been taught.

Therefore, it is equally worth considering which components of English study the students *did not* believe should be a part of their university courses. Figure 2 revealed that they found writing and academic content to be of far less significance than speaking or even grammar. This is interesting in the case of writing when one considers the supposed occupational benefits of having good English writing skills in a Japanese company. Lambert (2010) found that some of the most common task types undertaken by Japanese graduates working in the business sector require writing: translating emails and manuals from Japanese to English and summarising information from press releases, for example. International communication is usually carried out via email and faxes, not verbal interaction (Hadley, 1999). Good writing skills are important for learning a foreign language, yet if instructors focus on this in their lessons, students may feel they are being subjected to noncommunicative practices if they only equate communication with speaking.

The instrument could be revised for future use to further clarify the ways in which writing can be taught, given that only two types of study content were explicitly concerned with writing (*writing research papers*, and *writing essays and reports*). It is difficult to know if students considered both the speaking and writing aspects of items like *communicative English specific to my possible future job* or *making speeches/oral presentations* when rating them highly.

Mismatches Between Students' Expectations and Institutional Policies

An integral point that has arisen from the findings is that fundamental mismatches can exist between (a) students' views, (b) institutional policies, and (c) what teachers believe are legitimate practices. Whilst the differences are not necessarily divided across all three strands, with overlaps occurring in a number of areas, any dissimilarity can have implications for the classroom.

Figure 3 indicates that half of the students would like more TOEIC test preparation in class. This has become an issue in higher education in Japan: whether or not EFL programs should make room in curricula for test preparation. Many professionals consider teaching for tests to be a misuse of class time, as it can reduce the students' exposure to meaningful communicative input. However, students who understand that achieving a high TOEIC score is necessary for entrance into a company may become discontented with a program that does not address this as one of their most important needs. If an institution includes test preparation courses for all students, it may then create a division between those who feel they need such preparation and those who feel it detracts from study methods that could be of more benefit to their overall progress.

Certain commentators on Japan's higher education system (see Guest, 2009; Paterson, 2008) have bemoaned institutions for relegating EFL to a standard that fails to adequately represent the purpose of tertiary education, instead placing it on a par with the quality of language education received from secondary schooling. It is important to understand whether the students themselves are appeased by this standard or feel that there should be more to their English courses than improving conversational ability and passing tests. Their indication in the results in Figure 3, that they will require an English ability not just for their more immediate goals but also for their long-term career-based needs, is a positive sign, yet one that the institution would need to be aware of.

Mismatches Between Students' Beliefs and Teachers' Beliefs

The feedback gathered from the raters who reviewed the survey during its construction phase suggested that for job-related English communication, having coursework for the students' majors taught in English, reading and discussing academic articles in their field of study, and writing essays and reports would be beneficial, in addition to the more obvious communicative content. The fact that the students ranked these types low in terms of their importance and the need for more of them in their studies perhaps highlights their belief that they do not consider themselves competent enough to undertake such study or else are uninformed about its benefits and how it can increase communicative ability. It may also reflect on the teachers' own preconceptions about language, in that they are possibly constrained by ideas that may not be directly transferable to a Japanese context. This difference between what the teachers think students need and what the students feel they need should be considered during course planning, with the understanding that neither party is necessarily correct in its beliefs.

Teachers would benefit from knowing not only which student beliefs differ from their own, but also the conditions that may have led to their formation and if there is some legitimacy to them. It has been reported that Japanese students would like to do pronunciation practice in their EFL classes (Jones & Gardner, 2009; Matsuura et al., 2001; O'Donnell, 2003), yet this is often dismissed as ill informed by teachers and researchers who feel that explicit practice of it is unnecessary. However, the overwhelming student desire to speak with accurate pronunciation, reinforced by the findings of this study, calls for greater consideration of it as a useful instructional goal in classrooms. Despite the students' desire to speak more in classes, they could be restricted in doing so by certain cultural mannerisms. Speaking with inaccurate pronunciation seems to be a fear of many students that could affect their confidence in using the language. If explicit pronunciation practice in class placates students and generates more speech from them, it bears consideration.

Understandably, the concept of "hidden needs" is not obvious to most students. They enter university with an educational background that has not emphasised cognitive development or the practical application of knowledge, and they often do not receive suitable preparation for autonomous learning once their courses commence. They have formed beliefs on how English is studied and are not always responsive to change. A number of researchers support the idea of instructors confronting existing student beliefs with new information that can prepare them for their EFL courses (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005; Dörnyei, 2001; Horwitz, 1999; Wenden, 1986). Horwitz (1988) explains that students often view their language teachers as experts and are therefore receptive to their teachers' beliefs. If so, teachers should exert their influence positively on student beliefs by explicitly stating the academic and language learning aims of courses from the outset and by displaying these aims through activities and content. Discussions about the aims of classes should be a regular part of instruction.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have looked at the beliefs of EFL learners at a Japanese university to try and determine any trends in how they view the importance of course content in relation to their needs. One important finding is how their beliefs can differ from those of teachers and researchers. Opinion amongst academics has suggested that EFL courses designed to incorporate the content of students' other classes (Guest, 2009) or general academic content (Cruz, 2004) can improve their advanced English proficiency and motivate students by giving them a purpose for their English studies. Despite this, attention should be paid to the students' competing views. The findings of belief studies can go some way to inform both institutions and research, particularly in the area of program evaluation and planning. Student beliefs are based on their experiences and needs in specific contexts, and it can therefore be difficult to apply the interpretations made in other contexts. Institutions that accommodate certain beliefs may find that it enhances student attitude and motivation and positively impacts on student performance. It is a recommendation that course planners regularly survey students in order to better understand the views they hold on course content that may be contrary to the beliefs of professionals.

Conversely, student beliefs that fundamentally oppose the recommendations of research may need to be confronted. One approach is to provide students with new information in classes that can help them adapt to more effective strategies. Another is for institutions to reflect contemporary research by implementing programs that can provide communicative English relevant to particular occupations and disciplines. This could potentially appease the language needs of students more than the continued use of general English courses.

With a greater understanding of their students' beliefs, English instructors will be better positioned to be able to educate, inform, and guide their students towards meeting their academic and future needs.

Bio Data

Jeremy McMahon has been teaching English in Japan for over 10 years. His current research interests include learner beliefs and effective activities for young learners in low-frequency settings.

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Appendix

Student Questionnaire on English Needs

1. FUTURE ENGLISH NEEDS

What English abilities do you feel you will need in your life?

(Please put a "✓" in only one box for each row.)

	Will definitely need	Will probably need	May need	Probably won't need	Won't need at all
1. Ability to converse with English-speakers in Japan					
2. Ability to use the Internet in English (email, chat rooms, browsing etc.)					
3. High TOEIC or Eiken score for getting a job in Japan					

	Will definitely need	Will probably need	May need	Probably won't need	Won't need at all
4. Communicative English that I can use in my job in Japan					
5. Ability to locate, comprehend, and use written English information in my job in Japan					
6. Ability to work in an English-speaking country					
7. Ability to study overseas at an English-speaking university					
8. Ability to read books, newspapers and magazines					
9. Ability to give work presentations overseas (at conferences, meetings etc.)					
10. Ability to do academic research in English in my specialised field					
11. Ability to communicate when travelling overseas on holiday					
12. Ability to understand movies, TV, songs etc.					

II. ENGLISH AT UNIVERSITY

A. What types of English study do you feel are most important for students at your university?

(Please put a "✓" in only one box for each row.)

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not important at all
1. Learning grammar rules					
2. Learning new vocabulary					
3. Writing essays and reports					
4. Reading/discussing academic articles in my field of study					
5. Writing research papers					
6. Reading about/discussing general current news events, social issues etc.					
7. TOEIC test preparation					
8. Eiken test preparation					
9. TOEFL or IELTS test preparation, for study overseas					
10. Coursework for my major field of study taught in English					
11. Everyday conversation practice					
12. Listening to English mass media – television, film, music, podcasts etc.					
13. Extensive reading, using graded readers					
14. Listening to/taking notes in English lectures					
15. Communicative language specific to my possible future job					
16. Reading English textbook chapters					

	Very important	Important	Somewhat important	Not very important	Not important at all
17. Pronunciation practice					
18. Making speeches/oral presentations					
19. Learning about other cultures					

B. What types of English study do you think that you need more or need less of in your future English classes?

(Please put a "✓" in only one box for each row:

"Need MORE" if you feel you aren't receiving enough of this in your classes,

"Need LESS" if you feel you don't need as much as you are now receiving in your classes,

"Fine as it is" if you feel you are receiving the right amount of this in your classes and don't need it to change.

(If you don't study a type at all in your classes, choose "Need MORE" if you feel you need it, or "Fine as it is" if you feel you are fine not studying it.)

	Need MORE	Need LESS	Fine as it is
1. Learning grammar rules			
2. Learning new vocabulary			
3. Writing essays and reports			
4. Reading/discussing academic articles in my field of study			
5. Writing research papers			
6. Reading about/discussing general current news events, social issues etc.			
7. TOEIC test preparation			
8. Eiken test preparation			
9. TOEFL or IELTS test preparation, for study overseas			
10. Coursework for my major field of study taught in English			
11. Everyday conversation practice			
12. Listening to English mass media – television, film, music, podcasts etc.			
13. Extensive reading, using graded readers			
14. Listening to/taking notes in English lectures			
15. Communicative language specific to my possible future job			
16. Reading English textbook chapters			
17. Pronunciation practice			
18. Making speeches/oral presentations			
19. Learning about other cultures			

III. GENERAL INFORMATION

(Please put a "✓" in the correct box, and write the information on the lines)

- Sex: ☐ Male ☐ Female
- Age: ☐ 18-21 ☐ 22-25 ☐ 26-30 ☐ Over 30
- What is your current year of study?
  ☐ 2nd year ☐ 3rd year
- What is your major field of study? ______________________
- Have you ever studied English in another country or been part of an exchange program?
  ☐ Yes ☐ No
- If yes, for how long: ________________________________

What Can "Englishnization" at Rakuten Teach Us? A Case Study

Yoichi Sato
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Reference Data:

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A program by TV Tokyo, *"Kanzen" eigoka iyoiyo* [*"Complete" Englishnization at last*], indicated that some success in using English is taking place in Rakuten. One 39-year-old employee was made a model for L2 learners based on his introspection about his last few years of study, his TOEIC score growth, and his L2 business performance. However, such an oversimplified representation, based on a limited amount of information, may require revisiting. I reassess the program and discuss the complexity of judgment criteria about good practice in L2 business. There is a dual focus: to examine to what extent he can be considered a good language learner and to determine what implications differing perceptions of his L2 business performance may have for Englishization at Rakuten and beyond. Subsequently, how perceptional discrepancy between businesspeople and the corporate trainer may lead to problems in implementing corporate English courses is discussed.

2012年6月18日にテレビ東京にて放送された番組『"完全"英語化いよいよ』にて、楽天の社内英語公用語化が成功を収めつつあることが報告された。39歳の社員が英語学習の成功例として登場し、TOEICの伸び、ここ数年の学習の振り返り、そして短い会話例が根拠として挙げられたが、この限定的な評価には疑問が残る。本稿では、この番組を批判的に再評価し、ビジネス現場でのL2運用の判断基準が如何に多次元的であるかを論じる。本稿の焦点は、1)彼がどの程度good language learnerであるかを考察し、そして2)彼のL2使用によるビジネスパフォーマンスをめぐる認識の揺らぎが楽天やその他の企業における社内英語公用語化に何を示唆し得るかを論じることの2つである。これらの議論に基づいて、ビジネスマンと企業研修担当者の評価基準の差が企業内英語研修の運営にどのように影響を与えうるかについても論じる。

I have been involved with various Japanese companies as a global business consultant since 2010. Interviews that I have conducted with global businesspeople in several Japanese companies have suggested that the opportunities for them to use English for business purposes have mushroomed recently. An investigation of global management human resources published by Recruit in 2011 also indicated that an increasing number of Japanese companies are positive about introducing language-training courses, English lessons in particular, to raise people's awareness and catch up with the global competition. It is expected that more English-speaking business discourse in intra-Japan settings will be emerging because of current socio-economic changes, including the burgeoning of neoliberalism ideology in this globalization era (Kubota, 2011; Tanaka, 2006).

One of the companies that are positively addressing this issue is Rakuten. This largest online retailer in Japan determined to make English the in-house official language starting 1 July, 2012, after spending 2 years in a moratorium period maintaining their intra-organizational linguistic infrastructure. Hiroshi Mikitani, the CEO of Rakuten, called this corporate language policy *Englishnization* (2012, p. 3). While *Englishization* is the usual term, in this paper I consistently employ Englishnization to refer to the English-speaking policy specific to Rakuten.

Issues of Englishnizaion have attracted wide attention, and consequently quite a few researchers have addressed this topic. One well-known paper is Neeley's (2011) case study. Neeley conducted a questionnaire-based awareness survey about how Rakuten insiders see Englishnization. This study presented the voices of Rakuten workers, including their expectations and anxiety about the Englishnization. On 18 June, 2012, about 1 year after the publication of this case study, TV Tokyo broadcast a relevant program entitled『ワールドビジネスサテライト"完全"英語化いよ』[World Business Satellite, "Complete" Englishnization at last] (TV Tokyo, 2012). A movie clip of the program is now available for free web access. In it, a 39-year-old office worker of Rakuten, Tetsuya Iida, represented a role-model learner. However, the rationale presented by the program appears to be rather limited, including only: (a) retrospective interviews with Iida himself, (b) Iida's TOEIC score growth from 420 to 785, and (b) Iida's L2 business performance (only about 10 seconds). Such an oversimplified representation may require critical reassessment.

In light of this, in this paper I will revisit and critically reassess the contents of the TV program and discuss the complexity of criteria for judging good practice in L2 business. The discussion has a dual focus: (a) to examine to what extent Iida can be considered a *good language learner* (GLL) and (b) to determine what implications differing perceptions of his L2 business performance may have for Englishization at Rakuten and beyond. Subsequently, how differences in the assessments given by businesspeople and by a corporate trainer may lead to problems in implementing English courses for corporate clients will be addressed. To begin with, I will briefly summarize the issues concerning GLLs.

What are Good Language Learners?

GLL research has been one of the mainstreams of learner-focused L2 studies (e.g., Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975). Generally, GLLs are defined as autonomous and self-regulated learners of foreign languages. Rubin categorized some common learning characteristics of successful L2 learners. Oxford, in this light, established a questionnaire-based survey approach called *Strategy Inventory of Language Learning* (SILL). However, earlier studies on GLLs focused heavily on researching strategic language learning through statistical measurement (Johnson & Johnson, 1998, p. 141). In addition, learner characteristics differ from individual to individual, which makes it difficult to achieve a consensus on the definition of GLLs (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 53).

Responding to this, Norton and Toohey (2001) proposed some alternative approaches to GLL studies. They stated that "understanding good language learning requires attention to social practices" (p. 318) where GLLs practically implement their good language use. In addition, Norton and Toohey suggested that further studies should investigate "the ways in which learners exercise their agency in forming and reforming their identities in those contexts" (p. 318). In other words, researchers were advised to focus their research attention on GLLs' L2 performance in a situated context. Based on this proposal, quite a few studies analyzed the discourse of GLL's actual performance both in ESL (e.g., Barkhuizen, 2007; Norton, 2000; Toohey, 2000) and EFL (e.g., Fujio, 2007, 2010; Saito, 2000, 2012; Sato, 2009, 2010; Takeuchi, 2003) contexts. The studies on GLLs, whose origin goes back to as early as the 1960s, continue to grab the attention of quite a few applied linguists.

Although the majority of GLL researchers assess L2 speakers' performance based on an L1 standard, little has been discussed about how GLLs perform in mutual L2 English-speaking discourse, particularly in intercultural business interaction. Considering that the number of L2 English speakers surpasses that of L1 speakers, interactional discourse where English is spoken as a mutual L2 between communicators is certainly more common. This has led me to the following research questions:

1. In what sense, from whose perspective, and to what extent can the Rakuten successful learner representative, Tetsuya Iida, be considered a *good language learner* (GLL)?
2. What implications do differing perceptions of his L2 business performance have for the English-speaking policy at Rakuten and beyond?

Data Collection and Analysis

The data from the online video were analyzed from three perspectives. First, I transcribed the movie clip data based on conversation analysis (CA) transcription conventions (see Appendix) to make it available for text-based discourse analysis. In addition, to gain multiple perspectives, I showed this movie clip to 87 Japanese businesspeople to ask for comments on the situations (including three preset questions and free comments) from a business perspective. I also interviewed an experienced Japanese corporate language trainer to ask her impressions about successful performance in L2 business discourse. This procedure enabled me to gain insight and to take a holistic or ecological perspective to understand the complexity of reality in GLLs' L2 performance in business discourse.

Conversation Analysis

Tetsuya Iida, a 39-year-old office worker, represents a GLL from Rakuten in the video clip. He has been working in Rakuten since 2007. According to the source, he used to dislike English. However, the Englishnization policy changed his mindset drastically. When he was informed of the introduction of the Englishnization policy a couple of years ago, he thought, "That was not really a joke. I thought seriously about hunting for a new job," as he confessed in the movie clip. However, he became a successful language learner during the 2 years of the moratorium period. He spent 5 to 6 hours studying English after work every day. In a retrospect of those 2 years, his wife commented in the same movie clip, "It was nothing but a pain." As a result of his self-regulation, or autonomous learning, his TOEIC score made huge progress (from 420 to 785) within 2 years. Moreover, he acquired some communicative competence in English through his hard work. Now, he positively thinks, "I want to overcome some linguistic hardship between my foreign guests and me to talk with them freely. I want to expand my possibilities through learning English."

Iida's conversational counterpart in the movie clip was James Chen, whom he reported to. Chen represented one of the foreigner managers in Rakuten who celebrated its Englishnization. According to the source, Chen was born in Taiwan. Before coming to Japan, he worked for an American engineering company. After a few years of engagement as an engineering supervisor in his previous organization, he moved to Rakuten to be an executive officer. Regarding the language policy of this Japan-based company, he commented, "Ah, in the beginning, I was able to communicate mostly with section managers. But now, I feel I can talk even to their engineers very well. So, I think it's great." Below is the excerpt of an actual situation where Tetsuya Iida (hereinafter Tetsuya) and James Chen (hereinafter James) have a meeting using business English as a lingua franca after Tetsuya's TOEIC score growth.

Excerpt 1: English Meeting Between Tetsuya Iida (T) and James Chen (J)

1.	T:	I I discuss a:: method o of o organization (0.5) management.
2.		with a:: Kawa-san and Ono-san ((looking up)).
3.	J:	Okay (.) any conclusion?
4.	T:	((looking at James))
5.	J:	(.) Any information?
6.	T:	hmm:
7.		((putting his fist to his chin))
8.		No (.) ah that that meeting is::
9.		na nandaro: ko:: [what's that, like] ((rolling his hands))
10.		brainstorming?=
11.	J:	=Ah okay.
12.		Nice ideas. ((looking at his PC screen, nodding twice))
13.	T:	Ono-san is ah group manager (…) and one more is (…)

This scene depicts a situation in which Tetsuya managed to mitigate misunderstanding over the use of the word *discuss*. This miscommunication happened while he was having an English meeting with James. On line 1, Tetsuya briefly explained to James that he had a meeting about organization management with two of his colleagues. To that, James asked for more information by saying "any conclusion" (line 3) and "any information" (line 5). To this reaction by James, Tetsuya was confused as to how he should respond, which is indicated in his use of filler ("hmm:") while putting his fist to his chin (line 6). I also counted the time-length of this course of action by him (from line 6 and 7), and it turned out to be 1.5 seconds. This relatively long pause in the interactional discourse indicates that there was some interactional conflict happening. One possible cause of James' confusion is Tetsuya's inappropriate word choice (i.e., the word *discuss*). James perceived that the word *discuss* should contain a connotation that Tetsuya and his colleagues must have achieved some consensus through negotiation, as is commonly perceived by most L1 English speakers. This perception must have made him want to ask Tetsuya to elaborate.

However, what Tetsuya actually meant by *discuss* was *brainstorming*, which he himself eventually paraphrased on line 10. Tetsuya's linguistic struggle to produce this word is clearly represented in two ways: (a) his sudden insertion of some Japanese filler phrases, *nanndaro ko* [what's that, like], and (b) his use of a rolling-hand gesture (line 9), which is commonly used by Japanese to signal "I'm trying to say something" while speaking English. After Tetsuya managed to make himself understood, James commented, "Ah okay" (line 11). This was followed by his positive evaluation on Tetsuya's business-action-taking, saying "Nice ideas" and nodding twice (line 12).

This series of positive feedback by James helped Tetsuya identify that the miscommunication between them at this point was finally mitigated. Tetsuya's spontaneous continuation of his following utterance (line 13) and James' silence while listening also indicated that they had reached an agreement on what Tetsuya's *discuss* really referred to. As far as this data analysis goes, it can be tentatively concluded that Tetsuya became a GLL through the 2 years moratorium period in terms of not only his learning strategies and the standardized test score growth, but also the development of communicative competence in dealing with actual business interaction in L2-L2 English-speaking discourse.

Reactions by Ordinary Japanese Businesspeople

To explore the multidimensionality of the judgment criteria regarding this situated GLL, I also solicited comments on this scene from 87 Japanese participants experienced in domestic business affairs but unfamiliar with international business contexts. I showed them the movie clip and asked for comments regarding the following three questions:

1. Do you think Tetsuya is a GLL?
2. If yes, which of these three aspects (i.e., autonomous learning, TOEIC score growth, or L2 business performance) of his GLL features can you positively evaluate? (multiple answers acceptable)
3. If no, then why?

The results of this questionnaire survey are illustrated in Figures 1 and 2.

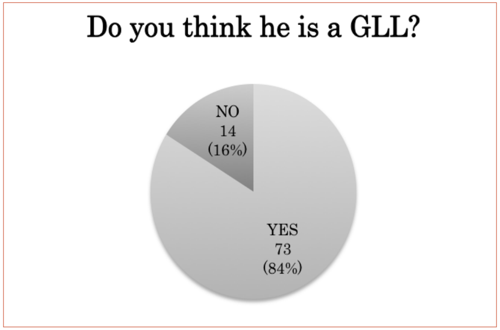

Figure 1. Survey Results: Answers to Question 1 (*N* = 87)

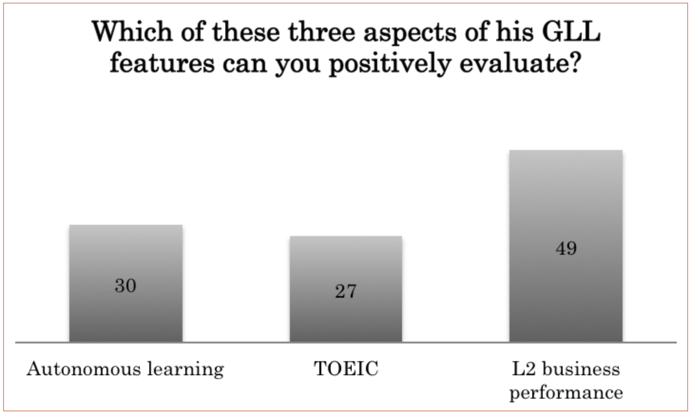

Figure 2. Survey Results: Answers to Question 2 (*N* = 87)

As can be seen in Figure 1, the majority of those surveyed (84%) agreed that he is a GLL, while 16% disagreed. However, the judgment criteria these businesspeople rely on somewhat deviates, as is illustrated in the Figure 2. It should be noted that his actual use of L2 for business purposes received relatively high evaluation compared with the other two aspects. Nevertheless, the effort he made for his autonomous learning as well as his TOEIC score growth as a result of his 2 years of hard work were relatively equally evaluated. The actual comments from these ordinary Japanese businesspeople will be discussed. The comments were numbered from 1 to 87 for ease of reference. All interviews were in Japanese. I have translated the comments into English.

Excerpt 2: About His Autonomous Learning (Free Comments)

> (#29) I want to study English, but I know it is tough to spend time studying English while working.

> (#54) It is always easy to escape or give up, but tough to continue, I think. This person, in contrast, has not given up learning, and this is worth evaluating.

The above two comments suggest that Tetsuya's effort-making, though he does not like English very much, can be highly evaluated. As Oxford (1990) stated, self-regulation (i.e., making effort, motivation, and affective-control) is a component of being a GLL. The first comment indicates that, from a businessperson's standpoint, Tetsuya's learner autonomy can be considered as a key factor of the success of his L2 learning. The second comment also suggests that his self-regulation to prevent him from escaping or giving up deserves positive evaluation. In addition to his attitude towards autonomous learning, some people also highly evaluated his TOEIC score growth, as is illustrated in Excerpt 3.

Excerpt 3: About His TOEIC Score Growth (Free Comments)

> (#26) TOEIC does not always correspond to one's proficiency. However, getting a high score on TOEIC is the company's policy, and his score is already higher than the goal, so it is worth evaluating.

> (#36) His TOEIC score growth is astonishing. It tells us how much effort he made.

It should be noted that these businesspeople identify a TOEIC score as a tangible judgment criterion of one's English study. Both of these two comments indicate that, although they realize one's TOEIC score and proficiency in English do not necessarily correspond, they still perceived that his TOEIC score growth could be a visible indication of how much effort he made within these few years.

Lastly, the number of people who highly evaluated his actual L2 business performance was the largest. Three of their comments are in Excerpt 4.

Excerpt 4: About His L2 Business Performance (Free Comments)

> (#12) I can state an opinion in English, but when people ask questions about it, I think I may fail in answering. So, I think Iida-san is great.

> (#19) He used to be poor at English, but now he can do business in English. I want to learn to be like him.

> (#31) He tried hard to elicit what he wanted to say. His attitude could be appreciated even in foreign business contexts.

In the first comment, the interviewee acknowledged that, although he or she might be able to handle one-way output of English to some extent, dealing with questions and answers in a foreign language and realizing mutual engagement in interaction are quite difficult. The second and third comments also indicate that Tetsuya's efforts to overcome his linguistic deficiencies and willingness to communicate in business can be highly evaluated.

However, it should also be noted that 16% of those surveyed concluded that Tetsuya is not a GLL yet. Some of their comments negatively evaluating Tetsuya's achievement are in Excerpt 5.

Excerpt 5: Free Comments (Negative Evaluation)

> (#8) The language shift makes it difficult for them to communicate, so it could put a negative effect on business performance, I felt.

> (#16) Speaking good English does not necessarily lead to providing good customer service.

None of these comments suggests that these ordinary Japanese businesspeople have placed a negative value on Tetsuya's efforts, proficiency growth, or performance. Rather, what they are critical about is the corporate global language policy itself.

In sum, the majority of these ordinary Japanese businesspeople identified Tetsuya to be a GLL. The above comments indicate these businesspeople tended to judge Tetsuya a GLL on the basis of how much effort he made, not how well he could make himself function while using his L2. Meanwhile, although some people questioned this judgment, their negative evaluations mainly came as a result of their being critical about the company's policy rather than about his language learning itself.

A Reaction from an Experienced Corporate Trainer

I also showed this TV program to Satoko (pseudonym), a 45-year-old experienced corporate trainer, and asked for her opinion about Tetsuya's autonomous learning, TOEIC score growth, and L2 business performance (personal communication, 7 Nov 2012). Satoko has had experience working for a foreign-affiliated company for several years. Besides, she has been working as a hired consultant as well as a corporate trainer since 1994, and quite a few companies have consulted her. This experience has enabled her to gain insight on how Japanese businesspeople should effectively communicate by utilizing their L2. Satoko interpreted the information provided based on her experience (see Excerpt 6).

Excerpt 6: Comment from a Corporate Trainer

> Although his TOEIC score grew steadily and his English skills improved a lot, Iida-san's ways of speaking still remain somewhat Japanese. James, meanwhile, looks pretty used to communicating with Japanese in English, I think. He must have experienced English teaching somewhere. If he were a normal foreign worker who does not know about Japanese, things would not end up like this.

In Satoko's opinion, it is not only Tetsuya's efforts, but also James's familiarity with communicating with Japanese in English that made Tetsuya's performance *look* better to most Japanese viewers. To explain this interpretation, she mentioned that the speech structures used by James in this interaction were equivalent to a prototypical classroom discourse pattern. In other words, without James's communicative facilitation, Tetsuya's L2 performance in this business interaction would not have gone that smoothly, in her interpretation. Hence, she estimated that, at his current level, how well Tetsuya succeeds in dealing with other English-speaking business discourse could greatly depend on his counterpart's familiarity with Japanese communication styles. As Handford (2010) stated, "the most important issue in business is not language ability, but the experience and ability to dynamically maneuver within the communities of practice which business people inhabit" (p. 145). In this light, Satoko concluded that Tetsuya could not be a good L2 user in business yet.

Discussion

In this media discourse, Tetsuya represented a GLL because of his autonomous learning, TOEIC score growth, and actual L2 business performance. Most of the businesspeople surveyed responded that they believed Tetsuya really is a GLL. However, it was also found that their judgment was based on his efforts, rather than his business contribution. Although some people questioned his good L2 practice, their negative evaluations were based on Rakuten's Englishnization policy itself. In contrast, an experienced corporate trainer argued that Tetsuya might not be a GLL yet, though his TOEIC score growth and efforts were quite admirable. She also suspects that Tetsuya might not be able to function in discourse in which his counterpart's familiarity with Japanese communication styles is relatively low. While his TOEIC score growth as a result of his efforts was highly evaluated by all, they did not agree on their judgment of his L2 business interactional performance. There remained quite a few disagreements between the businesspeople and the experienced corporate trainer. This gap is representative of a common perceptual gap and could potentially result in a negative effect in corporate training curriculum as it represents a mismatch between trainees' needs and trainers' wants.

In running corporate language training courses, it is common that human resource development (HRD) people outsource language instructors from *haken* (派遣, dispatch) companies (i.e., mostly language schools) rather than hire them directly. Responding to that demand, most *haken* companies usually provide corporate language training service with preset curricula and dispatch contracted instructors to their customer companies to run the training courses. To maintain flexibility to meet trainees' individual needs, some adjustment of the contents of instruction are also allowed at the instructor's discretion. My previous study (Sato, 2012) indicated that this multilayered contract system in educational business could potentially create business conflict for dispatched instructors. In future research, business researchers should address how this multilayered contract system could potentially lead to perceptional discrepancy between trainers and trainees.

Lastly, the limitations of this study should be mentioned. First, this study focused its attention on a limited data set: (a) conversational data retrieved from a TV program, and (b) interview data based on the program. However, it could still be questioned how prototypical of English-speaking business discourse in Japan this interactional pattern actually is. In addition, due to its nature as a case study, generalizability and replicability of this discussion cannot be guaranteed. Readers are advised to carefully consider their own research context when applying this discussion. Second, this study hypothesized that perceptual discrepancies regarding GLLs between the needs of trainees and the wants of trainers might make it more challenging to realize effective implementation of corporate language training program. Discussing in what way and to what extent this discrepancy (which occurs as a result of a multilayered contract system) does actually affect the efficacy of corporate language training courses, however, goes beyond the scope of this paper. To mitigate this conflict and improve the corporate language training curricula, not only corporate language instructors and *haken* companies, but also HRD managers as well as academics need to look at this issue from multidimensional perspectives.

Conclusion

Judgment criteria of good practice in L2 use, particularly in L2 business performance, are so multidimensional. In this paper I questioned the oversimplified representation of a GLL on a TV program and addressed the significance of employing a holistic or ecological perspective when analyzing actual L2 business discourse, including Rakuten Englishnization discourse. It is expected that more interest in English-speaking business discourse in such a non-English speaking country as Japan will be shown by L2 researchers. Researchers are advised to address this issue more subjectively to better understand the complex reality of actual L2 business performance by situated GLLs.

Bio Data

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Appendix

Transcription Conventions

(.)	short pause less than 0.2 seconds
(1.0)	pause longer than 0.2 seconds with its length indicated in the parenthesis
((noise))	paralinguistic elements
=	latches
.	falling intonation
?	rising intonation
:	stretched vowel
(…)	inaudible